# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 9, 1890.

## The Week.

THE Republican "keynote of the campaign" is a pamphlet of twenty-seven pages entitled 'The Grand Old Party.' It is ornamented with portraits of Lincoln and of Grant, and it tells what Congress has done during the past session for the benefit of labor. First, it has helped the farmer by raising the duty on horses and mules to $30 per head, and on hogs to $1.50 per head. It has also made corresponding advances on buckwheat, oats, cheese, cabbages, hay, garden seeds, straw, pork, and a lot of staple exports that our farmers are sending to Europe by great ship-loads almost every day in the year. Then the party has done an equally good turn for the operatives in factories, according to this veracious chronicle, which says that, "while guarding by every wise and lawful means the interests of the American farmer, the McKinley Bill has skilfully maintained the conditions which have contributed so marvellously to the prosperity of the American mechanic in the past twenty years. . . . It is a bill which enables American manufacturers to do a profitable business, notwithstanding the dreadful disparity in the price of labor." How promptly the lie has been given to this statement is shown by the journal of the carpet industry in this city, which contains the remarkable statement that the carpet-manufacturers of Philadelphia, who represent two-thirds of all the looms in the country, have signed an agreement *to shut down 40 per cent. of their looms for one year*. They have done this simply because the McKinley Bill has so added to the cost of their raw material that they cannot dispose of their product at a profit. Their market has been curtailed by the advance in price made necessary by the advance in carpet wool. Fewer people can afford to buy carpets. The shrinkage in the demand has been ascertained or estimated to be equal to 40 per cent. Of course they have not taken this step with any view of influencing legislation, but simply to save themselves from loss. The legislation is already in force, and the carpet makers have only to adjust their business to it.

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Now, how does this comport with the statement of the Republican campaign pamphlet that labor has been benefited by the McKinley Bill? The very first thing done is to throw out of employment 40 per cent. of the carpet-weavers; of course their wages cease when the mills close, and if we suppose that they can turn their hands to anything else, they will simply crowd the avenue to employment in other industries. This is the way that labor has been helped by the McKinley Bill, and this is not the only case nor the worst one, as will be found out when the tin schedule takes effect. This was cunningly postponed till next July, at which time the tin-workers will "catch it" worse than the carpet-workers are catching it now.

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The Boston *Commercial Bulletin* is not more than half pleased with the McKinley Tariff Act, now that it is passed. It says that "to the free-traders it is a disappointment, to the more conservative element of the protectionists a disappointment whose bitterness is intensified by the thought that in a large degree they are responsible for it." This observation is perhaps intended to smooth the pillow of Senator Hoar. "*The bill is by no means utterly bad*," continues the *Bulletin*. Then the *Bulletin* proceeds to point out in what particulars it is utterly bad. The new duties on wool, camel's hair, dégras, and sumac are cited as instances of utter badness. We had not heard of any complaint about sumac until the *Bulletin* told us about it. We now learn that this article is used for dressing certain kinds of leather, and that Sicily sumac is the only kind that answers the purpose perfectly, American sumac being impregnated with gallic acid from which the Sicilian variety is free. Under these circumstances, what do the McKinleyites do? They increase the duty on sumac to 4-10 of a cent per pound, the present rate being 3-10. This was done, says the *Bulletin*, in a vein of fine sarcasm, "with the apparent hope of changing our own soil and climate by the process." No, dear friend, Congress was not so foolish as that. What it intended, and what you meant to say it intended, was to increase the profits of the sumac-men at the expense of the leather-men. Such legislation is called "equalizing the conditions of production." If the soil of Sicily is free from gallic acid, that fact gives Sicily an advantage estimated at four-tenths of a cent per pound. Nobody expects to remove gallic acid from our soil at any such ridiculous rate as that, but it is expected that leather-dressers will put up with gallic acid rather than pay four-tenths of a cent extra for the kind of sumac that is free from it.

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We receive every day a new lot of trade circulars announcing an advance in the prices of manufactured goods due to the passage of the McKinley Bill, but we have not received any similar announcement respecting agricultural produce. Henry M. Peyser & Co. of Nos. 138 and 140 Grand Street inform their customers that they are reluctantly compelled to advance the prices of kid gloves, *especially of the cheaper grades*. These tariff men always know where to strike. The wearers of the higher grades of gloves are the rich people, most of whom bring home their gloves in their trunks when they return from Europe. The former rate of duty on kid gloves was uniform at 50 per cent. ad valorem. The new McKinley rate is embraced in twenty-six lines of the bill which nobody but an expert can understand. Messrs. Peyser & Co. tell us that it will not be necessary to advance prices on the finer qualities except in a few instances, but that in the cheaper grades an advance is imperative. They had hoped that it would not be necessary to make the advance suddenly, "but the fact that the new tariff goes into effect within so short a period after its passage leaves no other course open for us." J. B. Ryer & Co., 167 and 169 Canal Street, find it necessary for the same reason to mark up the prices of upholstery goods, and for this purpose they withdraw all quotations pending a calculation of the additional cost. A firm engaged in the sale of musical instruments and parts thereof send out a circular saying that the McKinley Act puts the duty from 40 to 140 per cent. above the old rates. Looking at the McKinley Act in order to see how this comes about, we were surprised to find that musical instruments are not mentioned at all. In the tariff of 1883, under the head of sundries, is a clause, numbered 469, in these words: "Musical instruments of all kinds, 25 per centum ad valorem." This has been stricken out, and nothing put in its place, the effect being to put musical instruments in the category of manufactures of metal not otherwise provided for, at 45 per cent. ad valorem—a cunning way to increase the rate of duty and conceal the fact until the bill is passed and beyond recall.

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In these days, when farm workers find so many discouragements, it must be pleasing to listen to such words of cheer as Mr. W. W. Phelps, the United States Minister to Berlin, uttered last week in a plea for protection before the Republican Convention of Bergen County, N. J. "The export of agricultural products," said he, "must find a limited and failing market; the export of manufactured articles must find an increasing and permanent market. The lowest grade of labor can raise corn and wheat and pork. It does not require the intelligence and skill and invention in which the American labor surpasses the world. Ultimately, then, we must lose these markets for our wheat, but not for our wares." Secretary Blaine, in his first reciprocity letter, told the farmers that in the McKinley Bill there was not a section or a line that would open the market for another bushel of wheat or another barrel of pork. According to Mr. Phelps, no legislation can check the "failing market" abroad for our agricultural products, raised, as he puts it, by the "lowest grade of labor." We leave our agricultural classes to pass on this ranking of them by the protectionist orator. But we call their attention to his conclusion, which is, that, inasmuch as there is to be no foreign market for farm products, the farmer must not squeal when, in a measure like this McKinley Bill, taxes are piled on

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him in aid of manufacturers, because he must look to the employees of these manufacturers, who will have "intelligence and skill," to buy his grain and meat. The farmer's mind must be of a very "low grade" indeed if he cannot see that this is simply a proposal to pay more, as a certainty, for what he buys, in exchange for a distant promise that he will get a better home market for what he sells. And if he did, what would the result be but taking money out of one pocket to put it into another?

Considerable light is thrown upon Speaker Reed's conundrum, "What is reciprocity?" in a late despatch addressed by the Argentine Minister for Foreign Affairs to each of the Argentine Ministers in Europe. The Argentine Government, says the despatch, is giving serious attention to the modifications going on in the tariffs of European countries and to the marked protectionist spirit manifested in them. These changes have produced justifiable alarm in the Argentine Republic, since they threaten that country's export trade, and so her national well-being. The situation is one calling for defensive measures. Accordingly, each minister is directed to give careful study to the new tariff laws as they bear upon Argentine exports, and, in case the increase of rates is found to cut into Argentine trade, to indicate to the home Government his opinion as to "what products of the said country are best indicated for the imposition of a heavy tax, on arrival at our custom-houses, *as a measure of reciprocity.*" According to this, reciprocity may turn out only a new name for commercial warfare. It is suggestive, at any rate, of what would be likely to happen if President Harrison should undertake to set our wonderful scheme of reciprocity in operation as against the Argentines. Should he deem them not properly grateful for our great goodness in buying their hides, and clap a smart tax on the same, he would doubtless find them ready to act in the spirit of the above despatch, and to put such duties on our machinery and petroleum as would make an end of our export trade with them at once. Evidently, new chapters remain to be written in the history of reciprocity—though probably they will prove only new chapters in humbuggery.

The President has made a shrewd political manœuvre in appointing Mr. Blaine's man Collector of the Port at Portland in spite of Speaker Reed's objections. It is evident, from the super-heated condition of Congressman Boutelle and other of Mr. Reed's champions, that Republican politics in Maine are already badly rent with internal dissensions because of this appointment, and that matters are likely to grow worse instead of better as time goes on. If neither Mr. Blaine nor Mr. Reed can get a solid delegation from Maine to the next Republican National Convention, neither of them will have a strong chance for either obtaining or controlling the Presidential nomination, and the President will thus put two aspirants out of the field. Whether by doing this he will benefit his own prospects for the nomination is quite another matter.

The Lincoln Independent Republican Committee, as the anti-Quay Republicans of Pennsylvania style themselves, have sent an earnest appeal to President Harrison, which he, as a Presbyterian Elder, ought to make the subject of prayer and meditation. They say to him, after tersely summing up the evidence against Quay as a public thief:

> "The issue is plain. In the interest of sound public morals and of primitive Republican facts, all seek the political downfall of a man whose public record dishonors himself, his party, and his State. There is but one alternative, either Mr. Quay must be shorn of political power, or the Republican party must lose its high name as the party of progress and the representative of great moral ideas. It must accept the ignoble title of the Party of Immoral Ideas, whose claim to power is no longer right, but might, and whose appeal is not now, as in the days of Lincoln, addressed through lofty and legitimate argument to the reason of the people, to their native sense of justice and of truth. It will then become a party whose youthful aspiration is sunk in hopeless corruption, and whose purse strings have strangled its patriotism. To avert such a catastrophe we appeal to you, as the Chief Magistrate of the nation, to aid us in this struggle by withdrawing from Mr. Quay the patronage of Pennsylvania, the responsibility for which has been placed by the Constitution in your hands. It is in this delegated power to give and to withhold office, to bribe and punish, that Mr. Quay's strength largely lies. Withhold it from him, and his political power will cease to exist."

The President should remember that the men who make this appeal are not wicked and hardened Mugwumps, but life-long Republicans; not free-traders in the pay of the Cobden Club, but life-long and eminent champions of protection, with such men as Robert Ellis Thompson and Henry C. Lea at their head. None of them supported Cleveland, but all of them were earnest Harrison men.

The latest Republican candidate who is charged with using public money as if it were his own, is that party's recent nominee for Governor of Michigan, Mr. James M. Turner. He is accused by a former superintendent of the State School for the Blind, Mr. J. T. McElroy, of having deliberately violated the law of the State a few years ago, while serving as a member of the Board of Control and acting as its treasurer. The law explicitly forbids any officer in charge of public moneys to "commingle the same with his own or with the money of any other firm or corporation." Mr. McElroy says that it is within his personal knowledge that Mr. Turner put the money appropriated for the Blind School into his personal account, and drew to meet the expenses of the institution and of his own private business from the same account. He further charges that Mr. Turner used his official position to force the institution to purchase building materials from his own business concern, though the law expressly forbade him to be a party to any contract or purchase or sales, directly or indirectly; and that in building a wing of the School a million and a half of brick were used which came from Turner's own brickyard. In support of this charge an affidavit from the contractor doing the work is printed, declaring that though equally good brick could have been obtained at a lower price, Mr. Turner would allow none but his own to be used. Other minor charges of a similar character are made by Mr. McElroy, who says that he first formulated these charges in 1887, when Mr. Turner was a candidate for reappointment to the Board of Control, and filed them with the Governor; that Turner admitted the truth of them to him in a private conversation just after the charges had been filed, and offered to secure McElroy's appointment as Superintendent for five years, at any salary he might name, if he would cease his opposition. This he declined to do, and, as the final outcome of a three hours' interview, Turner offered to withdraw his name if McElroy would recall his statement from the Governor's hands. This was accordingly done.

The "brick boycott" has been declared "off" by the august Board of Walking Delegates, and this silly disturbance of the building industry of several large cities is consequently removed. It will be remembered that the boycott was instituted by the brick-manufacturers because the Board of Walking Delegates had issued orders to all Knights of Labor unloading bricks in this city not to handle the bricks of the Verplanck Company because that company had refused to force all its several thousand employees into the "noble and holy order" of Knights. The manufacturers, instead of suing the Walking Delegates for conspiracy, combined and agreed to allow no bricks to come to market from their works until the boycott upon the Verplanck Company was lifted. They have won their fight, but they could have won it with much less harm to their own business, and without disturbance to building industries, by bringing the Walking Delegates into court and having them sent to prison for a brief period of meditation and seclusion.

Mr. Webb's action in intimating that Knights of Labor will not be employed on the New York Central Railroad, not only needs no defence, but is, as we have heretofore pointed out, the discharge of an imperative duty. If there is no law to warrant the indictment of a railroad manager who knowingly keeps in the employ of the road men bound to stop trains and obstruct traffic, without notice, on secret orders issued by outsiders, there ought to be one. It is just as criminal as knowingly permitting the use of an unsafe bridge or a defective locomotive. Private employers may, if they please, run such risks as long as the risk is only incurred by themselves, but railroad corporations or common carriers of any description have no right to do so. The character of his employees is one which every common carrier is bound to look to at his peril. The complaints which the Knights and their friends make of Mr. Webb's action, are due to that strange modern delusion that men can have a right to be hired by somebody else who has no desire for their services. Every man has a right to be a Knight of Labor if it pleases him, but nobody has the right to be hired by anybody who thinks Knights of La-

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bor unsuited to his kind of work. There are plenty of disqualifications of the same sort. Nobody likes to employ any man whose attention is likely to be distracted from his proper duties by other occupations or pursuits, or who has outside interests hostile to those of his employer.

Mr. John Morley's reply to Mr. Balfour's article on the Land Bill in answer to Mr. Parnell in the *North American Review*, which appears in the October number of that periodical, will be found very pungent reading. Mr. Morley brings out, with the force of which he is so great a master, that most curious feature of the Balfour land-purchase scheme—the absolute disregard displayed in it of the opinions of the Irish people about the matter. Balfour proposes to lend the Irish farmers $250,000,000 of British Government money against the wishes of the great bulk of the Irish representatives in Parliament, and indeed without consulting them or any Irish representative body, and to make the county taxes liable in case any of the purchasers makes default in the payment of his annual instalments. That is to say, suppose a certain number of purchasers in any county fall into arrears, and suppose the Government to be unwilling, for political reasons, to foreclose on them and sell them out, it would actually have the power under the bill to seize on the county taxes, even the school rates and the poor rates, to pay these strictly private debts! We venture to assert that in no civilized country, except perhaps Russia, has a scheme been proposed displaying such contempt for the rights and wishes of the governed as this plan of solving the Irish problem.

The Tipperary trials bid fair to become one of the greatest farces of "resolute government" in Ireland. The proceedings are marked by a series of rows every day, and the court adjourns "in the greatest confusion." The reason is, of course, that the trials, besides rousing intense party feeling, are conducted before local magistrates, themselves intense local partisans, who have been engaged in all sorts of scrimmages themselves with the defendants, and who are of course ridiculously unfit to try cases involving the liberty of speech of their political opponents. Every day the precise object of the prosecutions becomes more mysterious. The usual object of criminal prosecutions is to frighten the defendant so that he shall not do it again, and to frighten others from doing it, by his fate. But nobody supposes Dillon and O'Brien will be frightened. On the contrary, they court imprisonment, and are looked on by all their followers as martyrs, whose advice, whatever it was, is consecrated by their sufferings. The theory on which they are being pursued is that on which Austria and Naples pursued their malcontents before 1848. That theory is, that you can stifle popular discontent by savage punishment of the orators and writers who give expression to it and stimulate it, and Englishmen at one time used never to weary of denouncing it and ridiculing it. The London *Times* has, by way of adding fuel to the flame, committed the folly of denying that there is any danger of famine in Ireland, and accusing the people who are preparing to relieve it of hypocrisy.

The evidence in favor of the great popularity of the new Universal Suffrage Law in Spain is complete, now that Don Carlos himself has given it his approval. The symbol and champion of divine right recently accorded an interview to the Venice correspondent of a Spanish paper. Asked his opinion of universal suffrage, he replied that of course he could not regard it as the source of right, but, as "an instrument of government and administration," he frankly confessed that he thought well of it, provided it were honestly put into exercise. His adherents, he added, would contest several seats in the coming elections, not for the sake of making a display of power, but to show their enemies the nature of their organization, and to prevent the misunderstanding of their position which would arise from their abstention from voting. The present political situation in Spain, he thought, could not long continue, and he was calmly waiting for the day when he should be able to "realize the hopes of good Spaniards." When inquiry was made if he thought of inciting another civil war, he gave strong assurances that he did not. An appeal to force he would not reject as a last resort, but was determined to try everything else first. He wished to give every proof that his party was fit to govern, and that, without yielding a jot of his principles, he desired for Spain all true and lawful progress. All this is, of course, rather better evidence of Don Carlos's impotence than anything else, but is of good augury for Spain's domestic peace in any case.

The troubles in Armenia are apparently no nearer settlement than when the massacre at Erzerum, on the 20th of June, first riveted the attention of European diplomacy upon this latest phase of the interminable Eastern question. Systematic persecution of the peaceable Armenians on the part of the savage Kurds has followed that fierce outbreak of Mohammedan fanaticism; and the cable accounts of the appointment of a commission for the investigation of the troubles, its dissolution, and replacement by a "stronger" commission, the resignation of the Armenian Patriarch and the withdrawal of his resignation, only serve to show the utter incompetency of the Sultan's Government in dealing with the problem which for twelve years has been awaiting solution. According to Article 61 of the Treaty of Berlin, Turkey was obliged to institute administrative reforms in Armenia, and to protect its inhabitants against depredations of the Circassians and Kurds. These reforms comprised the introduction of a *gendarmerie*, officered by Europeans, the appointment of Europeans as Inspectors of the Departments of Finance and Justice, and the nomination of *Valis*, or local Governors, as representatives of the Sultan. These reforms were either never instituted or else violated in letter and spirit, and by 1880 the condition of the Armenians had grown so much worse than it was before the Berlin Treaty that its cosignatories addressed an identical note to the Sultan reminding him of his obligations. A lame reply to that note led to a sharp demand of the Powers for the immediate institution of the reforms, and this in its turn was followed by a representation on the part of Turkey of the difficulties she had to contend with in Armenia and elsewhere, and a cool proposal of other reforms than those stipulated. In spite of the indignation excited by this reply, nothing further was done by the European governments, although an attempt was made in the following year by Great Britain, in consequence of an address to the British Vice-Consul at Van, signed by 940 Armenians, to get the other governments to join once more in remonstrating against Turkish remissness. Bismarck, however, did not consider it expedient to exercise pressure upon the Sultan before the settlement of the then pending frontier dispute between Turkey and Greece, and later on the troubles in Egypt, Afghanistan, and Bulgaria pushed the Armenian question into the background.

The demands of the Armenians themselves are reasonable enough. They ask for the removal of the restrictions which prohibit them from carrying arms and serving either in the army, police, or as law officers, and hence render them defenceless alike against the Kurds and the Turkish police, which, as often as not, makes common cause with the depredators. In addition, the Armenians plead for the consolidation of the vilayets of Erzerum, Van, Bitlis, and Diarbekir into a single province, with Erzerum as the capital, and the appointment of a Christian Governor-General approved by the Powers—a concession granted to the Christians of Syria after the massacre at Damascus, in 1860, and found to result beneficially to both Christians and Mohammedans. Finally they ask that at least a portion of the public revenues be devoted to the maintenance of roads and schools, the latter having been hitherto supported by private means. The Turkish Government, so far from showing itself disposed to grant these demands, has characteristically treated them as evidences of a rebellious temper, and prepared the way for the frightful acts of violence perpetrated at Erzerum. The jealousy with which the authorities had for years regarded the slightest acts of national self-assertion on the part of the Armenians bore legitimate fruit in the eagerness with which the Mohammedan rabble of Erzerum believed the absurd stories that the Armenians were manufacturing rifles and even cannon in a school-house. That, for the first time in many years, the principal organs of the European Powers are at one in condemning Turkish supineness, is the only gratifying feature of the Armenian question. Even the Liberal press of Austria, generally so sensitive with regard to Russian interference with Turkish affairs, views with equanimity Russian indignation in this instance.

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### THE MONEY MARKET.

THE renewed liquidation in stocks which began on Saturday is due to an apprehension that the present ease in money is only temporary, and that the stringency which prevailed a few weeks ago is liable to come again at any time, and to be remediless when it does come. It is the common talk that the Treasury cannot come to the relief of the market a second time, because it has exhausted its resources. It is said truly enough that the disbursements for interest and Sinking Fund have been anticipated for nine months, and that the payments on this score will be just so much less hereafter; and upon this fact alone the imagination may construct all kinds of terrors. But obviously this is only a half-truth, since the inlet to the Treasury is no larger than the outlet at the present time, whatever it may have been heretofore. It is impossible and unthinkable that there should be an accumulation of money in the Treasury to the hurt of trade and industry. If, by any circumstances now unforeseen, the income should be greater than the outgo, and there should be in consequence a Treasury glut and a business famine, the Secretary would certainly find a way to restore the balance. There is not the slightest ground for fear on that score. The real ground for fear is, that the balance will be on the other side before the end of the fiscal year; in other words, that the Government will be in the face of a deficit. The reserves of the Treasury are large enough to stave off such a crisis until Congress can see what its complexion is and take steps to meet it, but it is in this direction and not in the other that trouble is to be looked for, if at all.

There never was a fairer promise of general prosperity than when the present Congress came together. There was not a cloud in the sky. Business had adjusted itself to its conditions and everything was running smoothly. Confidence was high and credit was unimpaired. Nothing of a material or commercial nature has happened to cloud this prospect. In fact, the mercantile community has been very conservative. Speculation has been slack and rather on the bear than on the bull side. Probably there never was a time when the community was better prepared for stringency in money if it should come, because there never was a time when the ratio of debt to capital was lower than it is now. Nevertheless, there is a cloud on the horizon, and of considerable magnitude. This is evidenced by the continued shrinkage in Stock Exchange securities—a shrinkage which makes no discrimination between dividend and non-dividend-paying classes, and which takes little or no account of earnings, gross or net. At the same time that this is going on, general business is good, and the exchanges, as shown by Clearing-house returns, are 16 to 18 per cent. greater in volume than they were last year at this time. Here is an apparent contradiction of terms in one and the same problem. It must have some explanation.

The problem is so complex that nobody need dogmatize upon it. Whatever opinions anybody may hold, he must allow that they are liable to a great margin of error. One thing, however, is pretty clear, and that is that Wall Street is a pretty good barometer, and that things do not go badly there for any great length of time without a good reason. Wall Street scents calamity and takes steps to guard against it. It is very well that Wall Street does so, for this is the way to stave off calamity altogether. A cablegram in the morning papers from London says:

> "American securities continue to be the weakest in the market. Business in the department of American railway securities is virtually suspended, the main cause being extreme uncertainty felt regarding the influence of the new tariff and silver laws on American trade and industries. Bankers and investors hold aloof from American undertakings, and are restricting their loans and operations in that direction wherever possible. One result of the new measures considered assured is a large decrease in the trade between England and America. English manufacturers' stocks have been hurried to America, but it is deemed certain that the volume of business between the two countries will henceforth be lessened. American exports, also, it is thought, must decline, thereby curtailing the freight traffic of American railroads. Those interested in American prosperity are of the opinion that it remains to be seen whether the new tariff measure will result in stimulating native industries sufficiently to eventually compensate for the immediate loss they consider certain."

That this is a correct diagnosis of the trouble we have no doubt whatever. The only disturbing elements in the financial situation are those which Congress has precipitated into channels of business. It has stopped our exportation of silver by enacting that it shall be bought with our own money and stored away in our own vaults. In this way it has disturbed the nation's exchanges to the amount of thirty millions of dollars. It has created a still greater disturbance by an unnecessary and gratuitous increase of the tariff, made avowedly to check foreign trade. The theory has been advanced that at some future time, not particularly designated, domestic trade will be correspondingly improved. For the present, and for an indefinite period, foreign trade is to be curtailed without any corresponding increase of domestic trade. Take the tin-plate trade, for example. Here Congress has put on record its opinion that not before the first of January, 1897, will domestic trade in tin plate be equal to *one-third* of the present foreign trade in the article. But the foreign trade is to be curtailed at once by an arbitrary act of the Government. If this novel method of getting Congress to express its opinion, which was naïvely suggested by Senator Spooner, had been adopted as to all the other articles on which new restrictions are placed, we should have had on the statute-book in black and white the very apprehensions which the business world, both here and abroad, now entertains. Added to these things is the further apprehension that there will be a Treasury deficit within twelve months. This was predicted by Senator Edmunds before Congress adjourned; but, as we have said, there will be a session of Congress in the meantime, and the resources and credit of the Government, which are still undiminished, can be applied to the exigency, whatever it may be.

### A NEW REPUBLICAN DEPARTURE.

MAJOR GOULD, candidate for Auditor on the Massachusetts Republican State ticket, has withdrawn "under fire." This is so unusual a proceeding in a Republican candidate that it calls for special attention. The charge against the Major is, that, while acting as United States Collector of Internal Revenue in Georgia between 1869 and 1872, his accounts showed a deficit, in principal and interest, amounting to $75,000; that a suit was brought against him in the United States Circuit Court for conspiracy to defraud the Government, but was dismissed under a *nolle prosequi* entered by the District Attorney; that subsequently suit was brought in the same court against his bondsmen, and at a second trial a verdict was rendered on April 23, 1886, in favor of the Government, calling upon the bondsmen for $41,622.36 principal and $34,462.78 interest. Several of the bondsmen had died in the meantime, and others had no property; and, after many fruitless efforts to collect the judgment, the Government compromised on Monday week, by accepting from one bondsman $3,000 and costs as full satisfaction for its claim. Its loss through Gould was, therefore, over $70,000. The truth of these charges is admitted by the Chairman of the Massachusetts Republican State Committee and by the chief organ of the party, the Boston *Journal*. The latter, in making the admission, says: "It is not believed by his [Gould's] friends that the money found its way into his pocket. He asserts that this is so, but he is unable to give a full accounting."

It appears from official records of the Treasury Department at Washington that the Major deserted his office at Savannah when the defalcation was discovered, and from that day to the present time has been "missing" in the opinion of the Treasury officials, who are said to be desirous of instituting proceedings against him. He took up his residence in Medfield, Mass., however, nearly twenty years ago, and was elected to the State Senate as a Republican in 1886 and 1887. He was a member of the Massachusetts delegation to the Republican National Convention in 1888, and is known as the "original Harrison man" of that delegation. It is evident by interviews which were published with him as late as Tuesday week that he had no idea of withdrawing from the ticket. He said to a reporter of the Boston *Herald* who visited him the evening before, that such a movement as withdrawal was the "furthest from his mind"; that he "had no reason for taking such a step"; that he "had not been requested to withdraw," and that, as for the stories going the rounds about him—

> "I think it would be in very bad taste for me to say anything about them just now, as they are not specific enough. Besides, I should find little else to do if I attempted to refute all the campaign stories which will be circulated about me. Look here at these papers and see if I have not a good war record. My re-

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cord as a soldier is spotless, but I would rather not speak about it until there is something said in a direct way. This is not the first time I have been similarly assailed, for the same things were said when I ran for the Senate; but I effectually disproved the charges at the time. It there is anything in the depths, I want to find it out. I really don't know what to think of these things, but I can assure you they are only rumors."

"Do you know of any one who has been active in spreading these defamatory reports?"

"I suppose they originated in the mind of some old crank who has a petty grievance against me. I refrain from making any specific charges, for I wish to be on good terms with all my townspeople. I would rather have their good-will than all the rest of the State."

The charges were just as "specific" when the Major made this familiar Republican type of defence as they were on the following day, when he wrote his card of withdrawal, in which he said that while he knew that he was "completely innocent," he also knew "how impossible it is in a political campaign for a candidate to meet any charge against him," and for that reason he believed it to be his "duty to the Republican party to decline the nomination."

We submit that this is entirely out of harmony with almost unvarying Republican practice for at least six years. If such a course had been followed in 1884, the party would have been without a Presidential candidate at the very opening of its campaign. If it were to be followed in Pennsylvania to-day, the party would have no head to its State ticket; and if it were to be followed in its national counsels, it would have no head to its National Committee. The charges against Delamater and his master, Quay, are no less and no more specific than those against Maj. Gould. The latter have been sustained in court, and the former would be if Delamater and Quay would consent to take them there. Why should there be more sensitiveness among Massachusetts Republicans than among those of Pennsylvania and of the national Administration? Probably because the party majority is much smaller and much less certain in Massachusetts than it is in Pennsylvania, owing to the prevalence of more "squeamish notions" of right and wrong in the former State.

Major Gould's defence of his character before he was forced to retire under fire, was as perfect in every way as any of the kind we have ever seen. It was as fervid as Delamater's, and was based as his was not, upon a "war record"; and it was far better than Quay's, because it was vocal, while Quay's has never been spoken. It is not considered a part of his "duty to the Republican party" in Pennsylvania for a rascal to get off the party ticket when he has been found out and exposed, and this, it seems to us, is more in accord with party usage than the Massachusetts view. In Pennsylvania, it is the custom of eminent Republican citizens to give rascals on their party tickets receptions at their leading club, to take them cordially by the hand, and denounce all other Republicans who decline to join them in these marks of honor as "unpatriotic Americans who are seeking the overthrow of the protective-tariff system in the interest of British free trade." The Massachusetts Republican managers must see the harm they are doing by their squeamishness, for they are reflecting upon the character and conduct of some of the best men their party has ever contained.

## *NEW ENGLAND IN THE CENSUS.*

On Thursday last the Census Office announced the population of New Hampshire, the only one of the New England States whose population had not previously been made public. The following table shows the population of each of the New England States in 1890 and in 1880:

| | 1890. | 1880. |
|---|---|---|
| Connecticut | 745,861 | 622,700 |
| Maine | 660,261 | 648,936 |
| Massachusetts | 2,233,407 | 1,783,085 |
| New Hampshire | 375,827 | 346,991 |
| Rhode Island | 345,343 | 276,531 |
| Vermont | 332,205 | 332,286 |
| Total | 4,692,904 | 4,010,529 |

The increase has therefore been 682,375, or at the rate of 17.01 per cent. So much has been written, and truthfully written, about the exodus of the farming class from rural New England, that it is probable that many well-informed persons have acquired the idea that the population of that portion of the country was either decreasing, or increasing very slowly. The census figures show, however, that so far from this being the case, the absolute increase in the population of New England has been greater than in any previous decade since 1790, and that the percentage of increase has been greater than during any previous decennial period since 1850.

The population of New England at each census, the absolute increase, and the percentage of increase during each decade, are shown in the following table:

| Date of Census. | Population. | Percentage of increase. | Increase. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1890.... | 4,692,904 | 17.01 | 682,375 |
| 1880.... | 4,010,529 | 14.98 | 522,605 |
| 1870.... | 3,487,924 | 11.25 | 352,641 |
| 1860.... | 3,135,283 | 14.92 | 407,167 |
| 1850.... | 2,728,116 | 22.07 | 493,294 |
| 1840.... | 2,234,822 | 14.33 | 280,105 |
| 1830.... | 1,954,717 | 17.78 | 295,138 |
| 1820.... | 1,659,579 | 12.74 | 187,606 |
| 1810.... | 1,471,973 | 19.38 | 238,962 |
| 1800.... | 1,233,011 | 22.14 | 223,603 |
| 1790.... | 1,009,408 | | |

The three northern New England States, viz., Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont, have, however, during the last decade, grown very little, and the last named has even suffered a trifling net loss of population. Sixteen-seventeenths of the entire increase in New England is to be credited to its three southern States, viz., Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. At one time, as the following table will show, almost precisely the reverse of this state of things existed:

| | Northern New England. | | | Southern New England. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Date of Census. | Population. | Increase. | Percentage of increase. | Population. | Increase. | Percentage of increase. |
| 1890..... | 1,368,293 | 40,080 | 3.02 | 3,324,611 | 642,295 | 23.94 |
| 1880..... | 1,328,213 | 52,447 | 4.11 | 2,682,316 | 470,158 | 21.25 |
| 1870..... | 1,275,766 | 6,316 | .50 | 2,212,158 | 346,325 | 18.51 |
| 1860..... | 1,269,450 | 54,185 | 4.46 | 1,865,833 | 352,982 | 23.33 |
| 1850..... | 1,215,265 | 136,960 | 12.70 | 1,512,851 | 356,344 | 30.81 |
| 1840..... | 1,078,315 | 128,880 | 13.58 | 1,156,507 | 151,225 | 15.04 |
| 1830..... | 949,435 | 171,178 | 22.00 | 1,005,282 | 123,960 | 14.06 |
| 1820..... | 778,257 | 117,197 | 17.73 | 881,322 | 71,469 | 8.08 |
| 1810..... | 601,060 | 171,018 | 34.90 | 810,913 | 67,951 | 9.14 |
| 1800..... | 490,042 | 106,192 | 51.32 | 742,962 | 57,404 | 8.37 |
| 1790..... | 383,850 | | | 685,558 | | |

In the closing years of the last century and the early decades of this, southern New England was, as to growth, in a condition very similar to that which now exists in northern New England.

In Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut there were in 1790 already forty-nine inhabitants to the square mile, or more than there are to-day in any State west of the Mississippi or south of the Potomac or the Ohio. Under the then existing conditions, it was not possible for many more people to find support from the soil, and, until the great development of manufacturing came, the increase in southern New England, and especially in Connecticut and Rhode Island, was very small. From 1790 to 1800 the population of Rhode Island increased but 297. In the first half-century of national existence, Connecticut's population grew only 30 per cent., as against an increase of 140 per cent. in the second half. With the great development of manufacturing subsequent to 1820, the rate of growth of the southern New England States perceptibly increased. Since 1840, when the great tide of foreign immigration which set in about that time was attracted to these States by the opportunities for employment held out by their mills and factories, their percentage of increase has been high.

Northern New England, on the other hand, in 1790 had a population of less than seven to the square mile. There was plenty of room for growth, and, until 1830, it was rapid. For the next two decades, while these States continued to grow, they did so much less rapidly than before. By 1850, although they then had only twenty-five inhabitants to the square mile, the practical limit of their growth as agricultural, or semi-agricultural, communities seems to have been reached;

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In the last forty years their population has increased but 12½ per cent.

There is much more waste land in northern than in southern New England. Cheap railroad and steamship transportation from better soils has made it unprofitable to till lands which a century ago would have yielded a living to their cultivators. The increased use of agricultural machinery has enabled fewer hands to work a farm of the same area. The social attractions of city life are far greater, and are brought much more closely home to the country-bred youth, than was the case a century ago. These are doubtless some of the most important reasons why Maine, Vermont, and New Hampshire seem to have stopped in their growth, although they have to-day but twenty-eight inhabitants to the square mile.

## "GRIPPY POINTS" ABOUT BELDEN.

WE have received during the past few days several copies of two campaign documents which have been sent out by Congressman Belden, Chairman of the Republican Congressional Committee, accompanied by the following circular:

MY DEAR SIR: It is my pleasure to hand you a copy of our 'Campaign Text-Book,' which has been prepared and printed by the Committee for distribution among Republican editors, speakers, writers, and talkers.

The grippy points of the present and recent record of the Republican party are grouped together in such a manner as to make a complete summary of the great and affirmative things done by the Republican Congress and Republican Administration, to which I most respectfully invite your attention.

I am, very sincerely yours,
J. J. BELDEN.

One of the documents is ornamented with colored cuts of an American and a British flag, and is headed "Under Which Flag?" and the other has on its first page cuts of Lincoln and Grant, and is called "The Grand Old Party." The first, as its title and decoration indicate, is an imitation of the familiar forged-extract document of the campaign of 1888, and we are bound to say that it surpasses its model in the boldness and liberality of its forgeries. These are ingeniously commingled with some apparently genuine quotations, in order to give them an air of plausibility, but while precise dates are given for the seemingly genuine ones, no dates at all are assigned to the forgeries. Good examples of the latter are the following, which we quote as they appear in the document:

[London Times.]

It is to the new world that the Cobden Club is chiefly looking as the most likely sphere for its vigorous foreign policy. It has done what it can in Europe, and it is now turning its eyes westward and bracing itself for the struggle which is to come. IT CANNOT REST WHILE THE UNITED STATES ARE UNSUBDUED.

[London Standard.]

A bill to establish in America what the English call free trade has just been defeated in the House by the narrow majority of four. The measure was of enormous importance for English manufacturers, as it would have enabled them to export goods to the States without the crushing tariff now imposed, and ITS FATE WAS WATCHED WITH INTENSE INTEREST BY ENGLISHMEN. WERE IT PASSED IT WOULD HAVE BEEN WORTH £100,000,000 PER ANNUM TO BRITISH MANUFACTURERS.

Aside from the absence of dates, these quotations bear all the familiar attributes of former Republican forgeries. They are expressed in language which English writers never use, they treat the tariff question from the American rather than the English side, and they are adapted too perfectly for the work their authors design them to do. But the absence of dates is conclusive of itself, for even the bogus-extract makers are aware of the fact that a precise date is a mark of genuineness which is so valuable that they would put it on if they dared. They know it makes detection and exposure both speedy and conclusive, and hence they do not forge that as well as the extract.

But it is not our purpose to-day to go into the character of the documents which Mr. Belden is circulating, but rather into the character of Mr. Belden himself. What are the "grippy points" in his career which especially fit him for the work upon which he has embarked as the chosen leader of the Republican party in its Congressional campaign? Is there anything in his career which would lead one to suppose that he would not find the concoction and circulating of lies and forgeries congenial work? These questions are timely in view of the fact that the same party has a public thief as the chosen leader of its National Campaign Committee. Happily they can be answered by reference to unimpeachable Republican authority.

Mr. Belden first became prominent in the politics of this State through the Canal Ring exposures made by Gov. Tilden. It will be remembered that the New York *Tribune* took a leading part in the publication of the revelations, and it is to its files that we shall go for light upon Mr. Belden's character. The *Tribune* made its first publication about Belden as a Canal Ring magnate on March 20, 1875, when it published many specimen contracts, including one of James J. Belden's in which "he agreed to do certain work for $86,584, and by means of unbalanced bids obtained $222,610," and another one of his in which "he bid $10,617 and received $49,936, the work still going on." In commenting editorially upon these contracts the *Tribune* of the same date said:

"Fraud is written all over the face of them. . . . The most lucrative contracts are in the hands of cliques, whose political affiliations are far-reaching and powerful. A leading member [Belden] of one of the most active and unconscionable of these cliques is intimately allied, by financial and domestic ties, with the Chairman of the Assembly Committee on Canals."

On the same day the *Tribune* published a "black list," which it republished frequently while the revelations were in progress, and on this Belden's name stood third, and at the bottom, the *Tribune* said: "This is a good list to save. Let every honest voter cut it out, and keep watch for the men whose names are on it." On March 23, 27, 29, 30, 31, April 14 and 17, many columns were given to the Canal Ring exposures, and much space to Belden, and what the *Tribune* called the "combination of Belden, Dennison, and Gale." In all instances he was spoken of in more or less plain terms as a swindling contractor. On March 29, while commenting upon a list of "Canal Ring names which the *Tribune* has already made familiar and odious," the editor said:

"Here is James J. Belden, the great Belden, and A. Cadwell and Mead, the lesser Beldens. The Canal Ring is a real ring, it has no end or beginning. Its members are grouped about every contract and every swindle, and yet in the eyes of the law are individuals and not partners."

On March 31, in an editorial article on the general pernicious influence of Canal Ring politics, the *Tribune* thus paid its respects to Belden as a practical Christian worker, almost as active as the pious Mr. Wanamaker of the present day:

"The Christian Canal Ring Contractor will go down to history with the Christian Statesman. Both have enjoyed a long lease of power, and are victims of a newspaper eclipse. The Christian Statesman lasted until he was exposed; the Christian Canal Contractor was found out long before his name got into the *Tribune*, for the leading contractors of the Ring, it may well be said, long ago lost the respect of their decent neighbors. A case in point is that of a contractor whose name stands high on the *Tribune's* black list. He built and largely supports a leading church in his city. He is the head of a large and flourishing Sunday-school. He is the sponsor of the temperance society [spoken of more directly in another *Tribune* article as the "Belden Cold Water Temple"], and is yet the *owner of some of the worst swindling contracts* and a partner of another of the black sheep."

Writing from Syracuse, in a letter published on April 10, the *Tribune's* staff correspondent bore testimony on the same point by saying:

"The chief, the brains of the Syracuse Ring, is James J. Belden, whose fortune, largely derived from canal contracts, is said to mount up to more than two millions. He is a man of ability, and though none of the Canal Ring have more than a common-school culture, he is a gentleman of refined bearing. But canal contracts make strange partners, and this patron of churches and sponsor of charitable societies is a partner of an uncouth man who can neither read nor write. Mr. Belden has been prominent in good works. He has given liberally to churches, and his example has been followed in this by one or two other members of the Ring. He has thrown all his influence on the side of temperance.

"One can imagine how strange it sounded to hear a church announcement of an exhibition of the 'Belden Cold Water Temple' tread closely upon the heels of the minister's denunciation of canal rings and thefts by contract. Mr. Belden became interested in education, too, just before he wanted to run for Mayor, and gave large sums to the Syracuse University."

In order that there might be no doubt about Belden's complicity, the *Tribune* said of him, also on March 31:

"These rings within the Ring have their offices in sets opening into one another, are for all practical purposes partners, and yet in the eyes of the law are distinct persons. Their bank account is in the name of one of their number. *Belden carries the bag for the Belden. Denison & Gale combination*, and the division of profits is periodic and impartial. . . . The chief curse that they have brought upon the State, say thoughtful men, is, not that they have stolen the canals poor, but that they have corrupted so much that was pure and withered so much that was promising. Besides their debauching of Legislatures and tampering with Canal Boards, there was the corruption and intimidation of a whole army of young men—not only those holding subordinate positions on the canals, but aspirants in politics, whose principles were undermined and standards degraded by the insidious influences of the most insinuating of rings. The Canal Ring was not alone a political conspiracy; it was a social pest, a moral nuisance, and the sooner it is under the ground the clearer the air will be."

We have not space for other quotations, but we could fill columns with them. The

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court records can also be cited for evidence against Belden. In January, 1882, he presented to the State Board of Audit a claim for services and materials on the Erie Canal to the amount of $125,406.90. This claim the Republican Attorney-General, Mr. Russell, contested in behalf of the State, on the ground that nothing was due, that Belden had been overpaid already, and had procured such payments by fraud. The case was tried before a tribunal consisting of Gen. Carr, formerly Republican Secretary of State, Ira Davenport, Republican Comptroller, and Mr. Maxwell, State Treasurer. After an elaborate trial, in which more than 1,000 pages of testimony were presented, the claim was unanimously rejected, and the decision reached that Belden had been overpaid $102,610.30, and had secured that overpayment by means of excessive estimates which he had presented, "knowing them to be excessive," and making them "for the purpose of defrauding the State." A tribunal with a Republican majority thus decided that Belden had not only wilfully defrauded the State of over $102,000, but was trying to defraud it of over $125,000 more. Belden carried the case to the General Term of the Supreme Court, and the finding of the tribunal was affirmed in January, 1884. Still unsatisfied, he carried it to the Court of Appeals, and it was affirmed again by that court on October 5, 1886.

There still remains one more "grippy point" to be added to this interesting collection. When Jacob Sharp was under investigation in February, 1886, there appeared among the payments which he had made one of $65,000 to James J. Belden for services as a lobbyist at Albany in securing the Broadway Railway franchise. When he was asked to explain what the money had been used for, Sharp replied: "Well, Mr. Belden is a man who don't stir round for nothing. He expects to make something." It is the expectation of "making something" which fits a man with this record to be a "born leader" with Quay in the latter-day Republican party.

## THE BOULANGIST EPISODE.

It would be difficult to find in French history an episode better worth studying as an illustration of French manners than the Boulanger affair, which has been so amusingly shown up in the series of letters which a certain M. Mermeix has been publishing in the *Figaro*, entitled "Les Coulisses du Boulangisme," and which we have already noticed in these columns. In the first place, the sudden rise of Boulanger himself into political influence so great that it seemed at one time doubtful whether he could not execute a successful *coup d'état*, is a striking example of the extraordinary contrast, which has been so often remarked upon, between the Frenchman's character as a politician and his character as a private individual. As a private individual, there is no man more prudent, economical, frugal, and slow-going. He is content with small savings and slow accumulation, and is exceedingly averse to great risks. As a politician he is one of the most impatient and restless of men. He cannot bear to wait long for results, and is always ready to try a new experiment in government, no matter what his experience may have been of former ones.

Boulanger, for instance, had all the well-known marks of a French humbug. The fine seat in the saddle, the contempt for the parliamentary talkers, the unwillingness to say exactly how he would set matters to rights except by breaking up the existing government, and so on, were all signs with which the French public was made familiar in 1851. Nevertheless, Boulanger had an immense Parisian success. On one night he appears to have had a fair chance of succeeding, temporarily at least, in an attempt to overturn M. Carnot. Nobody was able to say what he would do if he got into power, and nobody knew where the money came from with which he was living luxuriously; and yet a large body of followers were willing to trust him to the end, and several constituencies gave him immense majorities at the elections. Why they did so, nobody now seems able to tell. All are now laughing or wondering over the affair as they might over a queer, grotesque dream.

The manner in which the affair has been exposed is as illustrative as the affair itself. Where but in France would one of Boulanger's attached adherents have exposed the inside workings of the movement as a service to the cause? Mermeix's letters in the *Figaro* have, every one admits, ruined both the Boulangists and the Monarchists; but Mermeix is nevertheless convinced that he has done the right thing in the right way. He was, and he says he is still, an ardent Boulangist, and is satisfied that the best service he can render his hero is to show that he is probably a charlatan himself, and that all those who surrounded him were charlatans too. Nobody seriously questions his statements, and yet nearly every Boulangist wants either to slap his face or spit in it. Consequently he has a numerous crop of duels on hand. He has fought five, and is now in bed of the fifth The funniest feature in this stage of the affair is that he likes the duels. He accepts all the challenges for which he can find time, and is not apparently the least afraid of being killed. They come to him very like an interview here. He is a journalist, and enjoys immensely the notoriety the affair has given him.

But why is he not afraid of being killed? This question has been answered by a competent French authority lately in the columns of the London *Speaker*. What he says is, that Frenchmen of intelligence have really come to recognize the absurdity of the duel as a means of settling disputes, but they find it so firmly embedded in the national manners that no man can safely refuse to fight. They have, therefore, as a sort of compromise, arranged that duels shall never be fatal except through some unfortunate accident, and to this end that the sword shall always be the weapon. But swords require skill, and there are very great inequalities in the skill of different swordsmen. Although nearly all Parisian Frenchmen practise fencing with more or less assiduity, yet we never, or hardly ever, hear of any Frenchman refusing a duel with swords, or choosing some other weapon on this account. Why is this? Simply because each feels sure that, no matter how awkward he may be, his adversary will take care not to kill him; and the more accomplished a swordsman the adversary is, the greater the safety in fighting him, because he is certain early in the fray to inflict on one of his opponent's arms the ltttle scratch which enables the doctors to say that he has been put into a "condition d'infériorité absolue." That is, the rules provide that a man wounded, however slightly, is not fairly matched against a well man. This is now so well understood that the combatants go on the ground with the greatest cheerfulness, the only terror of the occasion being, to the impecunious party, the expense of taking his two seconds and the doctor in carriages to the field, and paying half the cost afterwards of a champagne breakfast at a restaurant. This last is *de rigueur*, unless the wound obliges the vanquished to take to his bed, which is very rare. Under these circumstances there is, of course, hardly any young fellow in journalistic or loafing cricles in Paris who does not want to fight, especially if can get up a quarrel with a man of some note. The *Figaro* says that the passion for going on the "terrain" is now so great that James Gordon Bennett is going to run a drag between Paris and Vesinet, with room for forty persons, to accommodate duellists. On each seat there will be room for one principal, two seconds, and a doctor. The inside will be arranged as an ambulance, with a priest in attendance.

But Mermeix has not fared very well in the affair. He received many challenges, but a man in his position naturally seeks to select such opponents as will bring him most éclat. Some he therefore refused, and those whom he slighted in this way had to take their satisfaction by calling him names in the street, or taking an occasional spit at his face. Others, again, whom he expected and wanted to challenge him, did not do so. In one way or another he got five satisfactory challenges, but three times out of these five he has, by some awkwardness on his own part, been wounded. Some of his enemies refused to meet him when challenged by him, and in his annoyance over this he made use of language which irritated a M. Dumonteil, of whom he had never heard before, as it put him (Dumonteil) in the category of "people who do not fight." In the ensuing duel, Mermeix charged awkwardly, and Dumonteil struck him in the chest by pure inadvertence; the blade passing near the heart, though in the regulation breast-wound the point glances off the breast-bone, or runs along the rib. On seeing the wound, the victor was nearly crazy with grief, but Mermeix was quite cheerful. He had, at the last accounts, only one other affair pending—with a M. Millevoye, his colleague in the Chamber. It was still uncertain whether Millevoye would fight or not. If he refuses, the Mermeix incident will be closed.

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## *LIBRARIANS IN CONVENTION.*

THE eleventh meeting of the American Library Association, held last month at Fabyan's, was better attended than any previous convention. Two hundred and fifty persons overtaxed the resources of the hotel, and, in the matter of crowding, women were treated worse than men. The President, Mr. F. M. Crunden of St. Louis, who, by the way, is an excellent presiding officer, discussed the past and future policy of the Association, offering important suggestions, and the Secretary followed in the same strain. It is evident that the policy—to which attention was called in our notes last year—of dividing into sections in which shall be grouped libraries of like interest, will be still further extended in the future. Already three States, New York, Iowa, and New Hampshire, have organized State associations. It will probably be found expedient in thickly settled States to have even greater subdivision. Massachusetts, for example, might have a general conference with headquarters at Boston, an Essex County conference with headquarters at Salem, a Central Massachusetts conference meeting at Worcester, and a Western Massachusetts conference meeting at Springfield. Each conference would come together two or three times a year to discuss a dinner and talk over plans for library improvement and library extension. This, in fact, is only adopting the method of some of the religious denominations.

A new feature was introduced this year which promises extensive results. Some one had the happy thought to make a strong effort to secure the attendance of trustees. Two or three have come in past years; this year twenty-eight appeared. They were among the most interested and enthusiastic persons present. At the suggestion of one of them, Mr. C. A. Hovey of Brookline, Mass., steps were taken, which seem likely to be successful, to raise a fund for the publications of the Society and other necessary expenses. This is a very important matter. Librarians are ready enough to coöperate in bibliographical and indexing work—their time they will give; but money they have not, and the publishing section has been obliged to turn away from important undertakings for want of a little money which would have insured publication. Another step was taken by the trustees: they prepared a circular to the vast body of absent trustees, assuring them, from their observation at the present meeting, that good work is done by the Association, and urging them to let their librarians come hereafter and to come themselves. The latter is not the least important recommendation.

We said, when the Library School was established, that it would be worth while to have a school for trustees as well as for librarians and their assistants. The ignorance of trustees about library matters is necessarily great. When appointed, they generally know absolutely nothing of library management, and sometimes very little of literature; and yet, because they have been elected by the town meeting or appointed by the City Council, and have the power, they at once feel themselves qualified to decide everything. If they are wise enough to secure a competent librarian and let him run the library under criticism, not as to details, but as to results, perhaps the less they know the better; for sometimes a little knowledge in a trustee is a dangerous thing. Competent librarians are not always to be had, though, thanks to the Library Association, and especially to the Library School, they are becoming more common. To select a librarian well, however, requires some knowledge of library affairs, and at least the feeling that the selection is a serious matter, and not to be governed by party association, or personal friendship, or charitable feeling. Then there are broad questions of library policy which must be decided by the Board, and broad questions of management on which the best librarian may be glad to have advice. Whatever, then, interests trustees in the science of the library, enlarges their views of its possibilities, and familiarizes them with the questions under discussion, will be in the end a great gain; and this will be the effect of the new movement.

Moreover, ignorance is not the only evil to be removed. Indifference is not unknown among trustees, and a want of faith in the higher educational work of libraries, born of ignorance and indifference. The trustees who come to the meetings of the Association must be already thoroughly interested, or they would not come; they will easily catch the enthusiastic spirit which has always been one of the characteristics of these meetings, and will diffuse it among their associates. They will also, perhaps, induce them to read the very well considered paper of Mr. C. C. Soule, himself a trustee, on the duties of trustees, and the bright papers of Miss H. E. Green of the Boston Athenæum on library experts, which digressed on to the same subject. A scholarly address by Dr. William T. Harris, the United States Commissioner of Education, and an amusing squib on antediluvian libraries by the Rev. Ernest C. Richardson, the new Librarian of Princeton, deserve especial mention; but all the papers and reports were good.

After the four days' conference, nearly one-fifth of the members took a coaching trip through the White Mountains. The weather, which in previous years has always been most propitious, this year gave nothing but clouds and rain. However, it cleared for a day at Boston, which was seen by nearly a hundred visitors in its best aspect. A dinner given to librarians by the publishers and booksellers closed the meeting, and produced a great sensation in the city, owing to some criticisms which Mr. Poole of the Chicago Newberry Library made on the new building of the Boston Public Library. The President of the Board of Trustees, who is understood to be chiefly responsible for the plans, replied in an interview; Mr. Poole rejoined in another; and the controversy, unfortunately, was not devoid of personalities.

We have never believed with Mr. Poole that his plan for a library is the only good one; but it has great merits. It is the old-fashioned mercantile-library plan, improved by making the building fire-proof, limiting the size of rooms to about fifty feet square, cutting the windows up to the ceiling, and never allowing books to be put higher than the hand can reach. These are all most excellent points, and we shall look with much interest to see how they are carried out, and what is the result in the Newberry Library. But there are other plans by which ventilation, light, and easy service can be obtained. The Boston Public Library may turn out to be a good one in a very different way. It is not of much use to criticise that building now. The roof is just going on, so that the main features are unalterable, and yet the interior is not enough finished to enable any one to decide what the practical results will be. Yet, as the discussion has been opened, a few remarks may be made.

To the observer from the outside, the lower story seems to have few windows, and one fears that it will be dark—a common, a serious, and a most unpardonable defect in libraries. The defenders urge that a fire-proof building must have small and few windows. The excuse will hardly hold good. In the front of the building is a large square which no body of flame could pass. On the sides, if the streets are so narrow that danger is apprehended, one would think that, unless there are to be suitable shutters, the building, to be fire-proof, should have no windows at all. One opening could admit a fire as well as fifty. And if there are suitable shutters, why not have windows enough and large enough to be serviceable? The architects allege that the windows, though few, are broad and high up, and that when the walls are whitened, the light will be sufficient. We hope it will be so, but may remark that few architects, judging from their buildings, know how much light is needed for long-continued reading. Window space is apparently calculated as if every day was sure to be cloudless and bright.

The book-stack, however, nobody expects to be light; it is intended to be lighted by electricity. There are, to be sure, seventy windows, but the wall space in which they occur is so vast that the light from them must be inadequate, especially as no attempt has been made to place them so that each would light one of the alleys between the book-cases; for it is plain that a window whose light falls upon the end of a book-case might almost as well be walled up. This seems to us to be a mistake. Of course the stack is not to be frequented by the public; but the attendants will go there to get books, and the librarians of the various departments must frequently have occasion to go to the shelves. Why make it needlessly hard for them? And why increase the cost of running the library, which will be large enough at best, by making it necessary to use electric light the greater part of the time? Fire-proofing is no reason, for the stack might have been well lighted from the inner court, whence there could not be any fear of fire. Nor is there any beauty there to be destroyed. A plain wall cut by 70 plain windows might as well be cut by 140 or 280 plain windows.

Probably the most distasteful of Mr. Poole's remarks was the assertion (which was not denied by Mr. Abbott of the Trustees), that the Trustees will be obliged to ask for more money to complete the building. But what of that? Every one knows—it is one of the commonplaces of the humorist—that buildings always cost more than the architect's estimate. The City Council must have known, when they voted $1,300,000 for the proposed library, that they would be called upon for half as much again before all was done; and the Council distinctly understood that it was voting for an architectural monument. The plans and models were publicly exhibited and commented upon for a long time; everybody saw that a great deal of money was to be spent for architectural and sculptural ornament. The previous plans, for which the piles had already been driven, were rejected, as we understood, not because they would have made a bad library (there are those who think the contrary), but on the express ground that the building was pretentious and commonplace, and would have been an architectural disgrace to the city, as people are now saying that the new Court-house is. It may be that the Trustees were to blame for proposing so costly a building; but when the plans had once been accepted by the representatives of the people, they were not to blame for carrying them out.

## AN OBJECT LESSON IN IRISH POLITICS.

TIPPERARY, September 26, 1890.

MR. BALFOUR hitherto has spent the vaca-

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tion in golfing in Scotland. Since Parliament rose he has not visited the country over which he exercises autocratic sway, and for whose peace, order, and good government he is responsible. The prosecution of Mr. O'Brien, Mr. Dillon, and others has surprised all parties. It is difficult to guess the motive for this measure. To most persons it seems an egregious blunder. Only for the suffering it is likely to bring to trusted leaders, nothing has occurred for a long time more favorable to the Irish cause, more tending to arouse the people and consolidate the agitation. The Conservative theory has been latterly that, under a firm and wise rule, Ireland, emancipating herself from the tyranny of the National League, has been steadily settling down into peace and prosperity. Especially as regards Tipperary it has been contended that the tenants' combination was rapidly disintegrating. These theories are now exploded, and the Government partisans are face to face with the necessity of again recommencing the Sisyphean task of ruling by imprisonment and coercion. Early in the present Administration we were informed that twenty years of resolute and firm government would for ever solve the Irish problem. In the course of last session Lord Salisbury adjourned this consummation till the days of our grandchildren. When Parliament reopens, we shall doubtless hear of a further postponement. Many of Lord Salisbury's and Mr. Chamberlain's adherents must begin to surmise that, after all, it may be worth while to hear other councillors.

A few words will explain the position of affairs in Tipperary, leading up to the present prosecutions. For some years a land war raged between owner and occupiers on the Ponsonby estate, in the County of Cork. A settlement was about to be made through the purchase of their farms by the tenants, there remaining only a slight difference as to terms between buyers and seller, when a syndicate of landlords interfered, declared the owner was being compelled to take too low a price, and themselves purchased the estate. The tenants declared they could not pay the required rents; they were, after an exciting struggle, evicted, and some 6,000 acres have since then lain waste or been turned into cattle-runs. The head of this syndicate was supposed to be Mr. Smith Barry, whose principal Irish property lay in and around the town of Tipperary. Then came a new development of the agrarian agitation. Mr. O'Brien and Mr. Dillon appealed to these Smith Barry tenants, and called upon them to espouse the cause of the Ponsonby tenants, and refuse to pay rent to a man who had hindered an amicable settlement on an estate with which he had hitherto had nothing to do. Although Smith Barry had been considered on the whole a good landlord, his tenants answered the call, and stated that unless he washed his hands of the Ponsonby business, they would not pay him any more rent, but would let him do his worst. This entailed great sacrifices: the town was for the most part held on leases at low ground-rents, and many of the occupiers had expended thousands of pounds on their holdings. Tipperary threw itself into the contest. The managers arranged that, to prevent heavy losses and distress among numerous employees, some of the chief shopkeepers should be allowed to pay their rents and continue on as Smith Barry's tenants. But local feeling was against this; all must protest alike—the rich could stand loss better than the poor. The trade of these richer renters was boycotted so effectually that they were soon glad to make their peace and throw in their lot with the other tenants. No opposition was offered to eviction. A mart with shops, new houses, and streets was by public subscription built on adjacent property, for the accommodation of the evicted. Some emigrated, others—among them the proprietor of a small woollen mill, with plant and machinery—removed to neighboring towns, and old Tipperary now consists largely of closed shops and deserted dwellings.

Those who have not joined the combination struggle on, a subscription having been inaugurated by the landlord class for their assistance; and a great force of police and military has been drafted into the town—there being almost one armed man for every adult male inhabitant. All the important local leaders, clerical and lay, and all unknown visitors, have hitherto been "shadowed" by police, who never lose sight of them, and generally keep so close as to overhear conversation. Against the wishes and advice of the leaders, some outrages have occurred, happily, however, attended with no serious consequences. The police have shot one lad dead and wounded a few other persons. Most of the prosecutions and imprisonments of the last few years have been in some way connected with this Ponsonby-Smith Barry business.

It is generally supposed that the struggle has had the approval of only one section of the Irish party. Mr. Parnell has apparently remained neutral. For their recent vigorous support of the Tipperary contest, Mr. O'Brien, Mr. Dillon, and some other members of Parliament and local leaders are being prosecuted before two "removables." Mr. Morley and a few others, with some ladies and several members of Parliament, also two of the accused in custody, were in the train coming down from Dublin yesterday. We walked quietly up the town from the station. I never saw a more peaceful gathering or a more orderly street. A band of police were drawn up at a corner. As we passed, a cheer was raised for "Mr. Morley," and immediately the officer in charge cried: "This is a disorderly meeting; disperse it!" The police at once began to hustle us about. An English Member, unused to such proceedings, protested, and the officer, apparently somewhat cowed, called off the men. For the next hour there was no disturbance. Most exasperating to Irishmen is the cowardly Government policy of relaxing in despotism when English visitors are present.

Soon afterwards we walked to the court through perfectly peaceful streets. Small groups of the populace were about, and several of the more well-to-do inhabitants accompanied us. The street in front of the court-house was occupied by 150 armed police and soldiers, and a surgeon with an attendant carrying a box of medical and surgical appliances. The gate of the court-house was held by police, and admittance was denied to all except the accused and their advisers, with members of Parliament and press men. Mr. O'Brien and others objected to this exclusion of the people as distinctly illegal. The court was an open court, and the public had a right to enter as long as there was space for them. I looked in; there were scarcely half-a-dozen there, besides a score of police. There was room for 100 or more. Some persons insisting on their right to enter, a scuffle ensued between them and the police, who, behind cordons of their companions and the military, had to deal with only some fifty persons, all unarmed. The police drew their batons and felled men right and left. This was naturally resisted, but I saw no stones thrown. Mr. Harrison, one of the Members for the county, was bathed in his own blood—a shocking sight—and with others was taken to the surgeons to have the wounds dressed. Mainly on Mr. Morley's indignant and horrified protest, the officer was induced to reverse his insensate policy; the court then filled, proceedings commenced, and order was reëstablished.

This morning the gates were left open, every one that wished entered, and there was no disturbance of any kind. The conduct of the Government myrmidons was infamous. The executive is fully within its rights in taking such precautions as it may deem necessary for the preservation of the public peace; but in England and other free countries this right is exercised subject to the curb of public opinion and popular tribunals, while here no such restraints exist. In Ireland, Government may act arbitrarily; redress is out of the question. The police officer, in the course of the afternoon, refused point-blank to parade his men so that those who had inflicted wounds might be identified, with a view to legal proceedings. (It may be mentioned that when the police are employed on country duty, the numbers worn on their collars while they are on town duty are removed, to prevent identification.)

The accused are being tried before and by two removable magistrates on the delicate charge of conspiracy, which, in a freer English-speaking country, is safeguarded by the intervention of a jury. One of the magistrates on the present occasion is Mr. Shannon, who had charge of the police at Cashel last May, when, upon the visit of Mr. O'Brien and others, the people were without cause or justification cruelly batoned. He was then heard to remark to an officer over the troops, "We have batoned hell out of them." The second occupant of the bench has thrice already been selected by the Government to try Mr. O'Brien, and has each time convicted and sentenced him. The attorney conducting the case is a man of low character, guilty of several crimes of omission and commission, who has rendered himself too valuable to the Government for his services to be dispensed with. There is much of the tear and the smile, something of the farcical, in this Irish struggle. To-day, during the Crown counsel's opening address, several of the accused, their advocates and friends, left the court and spent a few hours exploring the beauties of the surrounding country, followed by carfuls of shadowing police. These prosecutions, and the way in which they are carried on, end all questioning as to the wisdom or mistake, the right or wrong, in the Ponsonby-Smith Barry dispute; the whole National party and National feeling at home and abroad will now be thrown into the struggle.

Surely this state of things cannot be allowed much longer to proceed in Ireland. Returning after long absences in England and Scotland, I am renewedly struck by the grimness of the situation, the demoralization and confusion of the results all round. It were better that all pretences should be laid aside, and one course or the other unreservedly and definitely adopted by the British people. Either the Irish at home are different from the Irish abroad and from all other Anglo-Saxon and Celtic races, and should be ruled to their own inevitable injury, for the supposed benefit of the Empire, by force, or they should be trusted to know their own interest, and liberated to act for their own welfare and learn by their own mistakes. Is Ireland to be ruled in the interests of the few or of the many? The Irish people feel that they are engaged in no ordinary political struggle for place or power: the very existence of a nation is believed to be at stake; and if there be no speedy, reasonable

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settlement, the world must face a continuation of a disgraceful anachronism in a so-called civilized empire at the end of this nineteenth Christian century.

## CATHEDRAL AND OTHER ENGLISH LIBRARIES.

ROWSLEY, DERBYSHIRE, Sept. 26, 1890.

I HAVE recently taken a look at the Cathedral libraries at York, Lincoln, Ely, and Lichfield. Those who are familiar with Dr. Dexter's Bibliography of Congregationalism will know what interest the Chapter Library at York has for the student of our early ecclesiastical history, particularly that of New England. I found Canon Raine helpful in all that gives interest to York, for he is the leading spirit of its Roman and antiquarian museums, as well as the librarian of the Chapter, and this library is not unused by the literary workers of the neighborhood. It has its undue proportion of the old folios of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, if one has an eye for the literature most serviceable to the modern scholar; but the lover of the work of the early presses finds much to engage his attention, and Canon Raine proved an excellent mentor in my inquiries. At Lincoln as at Ely, I found that the muniments of the see had been well cared for and arranged by a local student of palæography, whose fitness for the work had been well recognized by their respective bishops. The student could enter upon inquiries with ease, and all the parchments were carefully labelled and boxed. At Lincoln, the library was a little dismal and crowded, but one of the vicar priests who had the collection in charge, is putting it in good order. The Dean, who showed it to me, told feelingly the story of Dibdin's pillage of it to enrich Althorpe with Caxtons and Wynkin de Wordes, since the keepers of those days recognized little difference in value in the modern books which Dibdin gave in exchange. What they have left of Caxton is a poor show compared with what they then lost. The two imprints of the earliest English printer which they still retain, were probably scorned by Dibdin for their imperfections. Ely, where the records were so well cared for, has not much to show for a library. The collection in the Bishop's palace, apart from the private library of Lord Alwyn Compton, the present Bishop, is an heirloom from an earlier bishop, but not, I should judge, of great value.

At Lichfield there was much of interest. The library of the Dean and Chapter suffered destruction in the days of the Civil War, when Cromwell battered the central tower to its fall; and the collection now housed in a room over the Chapter-house owes its restoration to the famous Duchess of Shrewsbury, whose portrait they preserve on the walls. Fortunately the muniments were in other quarters at the time and were not hurt, and some of the more curious, like a manuscript of their patron, Saint Chad, are now kept under glass in the library, where they have already arranged a collection of royal orders respecting the see, from King John down, with their great seals attached, and in excellent order, since they have been cleaned by the experts at the British Museum. It is not long since all these parchments were in an unassorted mass, but a few years ago the revived interest in muniments led to their assortment and rearrangement; and what gives an additional value to them is, that the Archæological Society of Stafford has, under the care of Dr. Coxe, printed a complete calendar of them.

In the library two things particularly interested me. One was a contemporary copy on parchment of Chaucer's 'Canterbury Tales,' beautifully illuminated and preserved in much of its original freshness. The other was a volume of sermons of the seventeenth century which Dr. Johnson had used in making his dictionary. He had, with a black lead-pencil, underscored the words which he wished to use. Against each word in the margin he had written its initial letter. Each of these was ticked through by his amanuensis as he had copied them for the printer. Mr. Timmins of Arley has another such marked book, and these two are the only ones that I have heard of.

I have not seen of late anything remarkable in private libraries. I found Dean Butler at Lincoln in his library, working over some of the early parchments which he had brought from the muniment-room, and surrounded by a working collection of books, and ready to put his hand on anything illustrative of the beautiful cathedral in which he takes so much pride. The Bishop of Ely was absent when I was there, but I had seen him at the Deanery in Lincoln, and his chaplain took me into the charming working-place of the Bishop's studious hours. I was sorry to miss Sir James Lecaita at Chatsworth, since there was no one but servants at the house So I failed of seeing some of the choice Americana of its beautiful library. American students have been able to take the measure of that collection since Sir James, the Duke's librarian, a few years ago, compiled the four large volumes which constitute its printed catalogue, with which some of the principal American libraries were favored at the time of its completion. The ordinary visitor is conducted through some of the galleries which contain some of the long serial publications, but the library is classed with the private apartments. I noted casually a few Shaksperian books, like Halliwell's great folios; but it is in the distinct collection at Devonshire House in London that the famous Shakspere rarities are kept, and there is little at Chatsworth to interest the bibliographer of Shakspere.

I spent last week at Reading, in attendance upon the thirteenth annual meeting of the Library Association of the United Kingdom, at which about 150 of the librarians of the British Isles were present, under the presidency of Mr. Maunde Thompson, the principal librarian of the British Museum. I was present in 1877, in London, when, as a conclusion to the international conference of librarians then held in that city, the association was formed, and a former head of the Museum, Mr. Winter Jones, was made its first President. Ever since then it has had its annual meeting, and, all the great towns having entertained them, it devolved upon Reading as a representative of the smaller municipalities to give them welcome this year; and the Association, so far as festivities were concerned, suffered little from the change. Everything was done to make that part of the day not given to business pass agreeably. The members, with their attendant ladies—for I think there was not a single woman librarian present—were entertained every day at lunch in the Town Hall, and at evening receptions given in the municipal apartments by the Mayor.

One day we all went on "brakes" to the Roman ruins of Silchester, where we found the workmen of the Royal Society of Antiquaries just uncovering a tessellated pavement. Mr. Fox, representing that Society, explained everything. A long stretch of the original walls are still standing, overrun with tangled creepers and enclasped by the roots of many trees. The gates have been unearthed, and we were enabled easily to comprehend their plans of defence. One of the finest collections of Roman and early English coins which I have seen is one formed by a gentleman at Wallingford, whom we visited on another day, and who could show us a collection in some ways superior to that of the British Museum, and gathered from the neighboring soil of this peculiarly Roman region of Berks.

Another day we were given a five o'clock tea almost under the shade of the trees surrounding the parish church at Eversley, with its neighboring rectory, and hard by the grave of Charles Kingsley; and we listened with attention while a gentleman of the neighborhood lovingly recounted the story of Kingsley's life and pictured him as his neighbors knew him.

Another day we went in a flotilla of steam launches up the Thames, lunched on the banks near the old dikes of Dorchester, and took our five o'clock tea as we came down the river at Wallingford Castle, where the owner of the private residence within the grounds of the old castle hospitably entertained us. The vicar of the parish made the old story of the ruin real as we rambled with him over its keep and the surrounding parts.

As a conclusion of the week's work the librarians dined together in the Town Hall, and their American guest said what he could in conveying the congratulations of the brothers of the craft who work beyond the sea.

JUSTIN WINSOR.

# Correspondence.

## THE "CORRESPONDENCE UNIVERSITY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The founders of the so-called "Correspondence University" will perhaps be shocked to learn that their names have been used to further a fraud. A number of letters have recently been placed in my hands which clearly show the present status of this remarkable institution. The moving spirit is one who signs himself "F. W. Harkins, A.M., Ph.D." His headquarters is at No. 147 Throop Street, Chicago. His object appears to be to entrap clergymen and teachers into paying for degrees and membership. The letters before me were received by clergymen, one in Pennsylvania, the other in Maine, both in small places. The Rev. A. B., having noticed somewhere an advertisement of the paper called the *Union Reading Circle*, wrote for a copy. He received this reply:

DEAR SIR: In reply to yours of recent date, we mail you a copy of our *Union Reading Circle*, in which you will find full information of our plan and methods. If you wish a degree, you should reply at once, and give in detail the history of your education and claims for a degree, as new rules are soon to go into effect nearly doubling the present requirements. Such information will enable me to judge as to your likelihood of getting the degree, but does not constitute an application. We are graduating as post-graduates some of the best scholars, college presidents and professors, and professional gentlemen in the United States, our latest being the assistant pastor of ——. We shall be glad to appoint you an assistant professor and examiner in your region, but all such must be our graduates in some one degree.

Awaiting an early reply, I remain, very truly yours, F. W. HARKINS.

P. S.—Please state your degrees and dates of graduation.

To this the Rev. A. B. replied, saying he would

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enter and take a course leading to the degree of Ph.D. The answer is here given:

DEAR SIR: Your esteemed favor is at hand and contents noted. I write immediately, as so little time now remains [eight days intervened between the former letter and this one] to act in, if you care to secure the degree of Ph.D. from this University, unless you can spend two years in the work of some one department. Our professors being quite conservative, and feeling that our great success warrants their action, have annually raised the standard of their requirements for graduation, and the last action actually added a year's attendance on our University, the requirement being heretofore only one year in some one study. This has seemed to me very severe, but I know it only increases the value of diplomas already issued and to come. Our graduates are first-class without exception, being mainly teachers, superintendents, professional and literary men. The post-graduates are graduates of the best institutions of the United States. Indeed, the accompanying list proves that no American institution can boast of a finer corps of graduates, and none of [our] graduates has ever expressed anything but the highest satisfaction with the result.

However, in order to avoid doing an injustice to several students, the time for effecting the change was put off until July 8, and it was voted to allow all applications filed before July 8, 1889, to come under the old rule requiring but one year's attendance, and, at the discretion of the Council, to consider the year's attendance to be complete if the student pursued some one branch until September 30 next. This makes a remarkable opportunity, if one can take advantage of it, for after July 8 next no one can graduate unless he has been connected with this University two years, and has paid in tuition fees alone at least $50 as shown by the Treasurer's books.

Accordingly, if you wish the degree of Ph.D., I would advise you to complete an application at once as per enclosed rules. Sign the enclosed blank form and remit to me the sum of $25 as a deposit of the graduation fee, and either $25 for tuition fee or a note for the same due in sixty days. (We no longer charge a matriculation fee of $25, as do most colleges, especially of post-graduates.) On receipt of these fees, amounting in all to $50 as a total cost to you, I will file your application for action by our Council of Graduation. This meets next time Saturday, June 29, and weekly thereafter. All applications should be in before July 8. Now, although Chairman of the Council, I do not wish to anticipate their action, and will not guarantee you a degree; but as I wish to have as many worthy graduates as possible by July 8, I will agree to recommend your application, if all is as your letter states, and secure you a degree in every proper way consistent with my office. I am satisfied of your worthiness, for although some technical deficiencies exist, I am disposed to waive them in view of your professional ability and culture, which, in my estimation, are far more essential than mere routine work. Technicalities are less than merit.

Of course, should you not get a degree, I guarantee that your deposit and tuition fee shall be returned to you at once, as is our rule. As to the study, you can choose any subject you please, and all you have to do is to satisfy me that you have done fair work during the next three months in the subject. I forgot to say a thesis on the subject chosen must be handed in by September 30. This, however, need not be new, but must be scholarly. Our degrees are given for merit only; we grant no mere honorary degrees whatever. You will observe that although modelled after the famous London university, this university not only grants degrees, but teaches by correspondence, and has local schools in this city—features that the University of Cambridge, England, has lately approved by imitating. Graduates do not need to come to Chicago to graduate, as their diplomas will be sent to them. On graduation I shall be pleased to have you appointed Assistant Professor and Examiner for your region. All such must be our graduates in one degree. Awaiting your reply and trusting I may serve you,

I am very truly yours,
F. W. HARKINS, President.

Again the Rev. A. B. wrote, saying he could not pay so much money for a degree. Then came the following:

DEAR SIR: Your esteemed favor of July 1 was duly received and carefully noted. I answer it somewhat tardily [July 7] owing to extreme pressure of correspondence and other duties incident to this season of the year. I trust my delay has not affected your ardor or altered your determination. It will not work any injustice to you, as I am allowed under the old rule a month's grace to file your application on account of this delay. In view of what you say as to the financial question, I will make you this proposition: If you will send me $5 cash to guard against actual loss to the University, I will agree to accept your notes for the remaining fees for any convenient time, and also agree that no charge shall be made against you for more than $25, unless payable out of fees due you as Assistant Professor and Examiner. This will comply with our rules and at the same time show my faith in our work, based on the fact that many of our graduates have made graduation a profitable investment financially as well as otherwise. Hoping that this will be entirely satisfactory to you, and that I shall receive your application within the time allowed me, I am,

Very truly yours, F. W. HARKINS.

These letters need no comment. The fraud attempted in this case has been successful in others. A printed list of the names of those upon whom degrees have been conferred is enclosed in one of the letters of "President Harkins," from which it appears that a number of clergymen and teachers have been caught. Poor souls! Can we wonder that the bunco-steerer still finds victims?

During the present year another clergyman, personally known to me, received a letter which shows that "President Harkins, A.M., Ph.D." is still conducting business at the old stand, 147 Throop St., Chicago, but that he is now "Chancellor of the National University." According to the new letter-head, this great University consists of "forty-five departments, conducted by eminent professors of universities, colleges, etc., affording instruction to 'any person in any study,' through direct correspondence." Of course the "Chancellor" is at his old game, but he has modified his plan somewhat. He is still prepared to confer degrees of all kinds, even including "*Master of Accounts*," but he also hopes to secure a number of five-dollar fees from those who wish to become fellows of the National University. Any one desiring to become a "F.N.U." need only send the following application signed to the "Chancellor," enclosing ten dollars:

"I, the undersigned, being heartily interested in the education of the people, and desiring to do what I can to advance all good plans for accomplishing this worthy end, hereby make application to be made a *Fellow* of the National University, and inclose the necessary fees (five dollars for a Certificate of Fellowship and five dollars for the annual subscription to the Library Fund for the year . . . ), subject to these fees being returned to me should I not be admitted a *Fellow* of the University, and not otherwise.

"Signed ————————."

The "Chancellor's" circular informs us that "hereafter all University graduates and graduates of first-class colleges, and others eminent in Science, Literature, or Art will be eligible for election as Fellows of this University. The rank and title conferred will be F.N.U., duly certified to under the seal of the University."

Is this not a case for the law? In any event, it is desirable that the "Chancellor" should be shown up as quickly as possible, and to this end I ask your aid.—Yours truly,

IRA REMSEN.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,
BALTIMORE, September 27, 1890.

## SUNDAY-SCHOOLS AND CONVICTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is it not possible that some of your recent correspondents are mistaken as to the actual situation with reference to Sunday-school teaching? May it not be that most of us who teach in these schools do actually have the courage of our convictions, and teach just what we believe? Teaching in a Sunday-school is a voluntary service, requiring punctual attendance, and taking considerable time, which those engaged in it could easily spend profitably in some other manner. Under such circumstances there are comparatively few who would find any sufficient motive to spend the time and mental effort in teaching what they do not positively believe to be truth, and important truth.

Of course not one in a hundred has had any opportunity to investigate seriously the results of what is generally known as the "higher criticism." The great majority base their belief or disbelief on evidence of other kinds, and must continue so to do for long years to come. Of those who are versed in the literature of recent Biblical criticism, some have doubtless had their faith weakened, others have had it strengthened, and many others do not profess to have had any faith to begin with. Now, of any or of all of these classes we submit that it is unfair to assume that any considerable proportion is gratuitously engaged in teaching to children what is believed to be false. No man could do so and retain his self-respect—a thing which most people do not care to sacrifice without some strong motive; nor could any one do so and not be compelled to recognize that his own moral conduct was far below the ideal held up in the writings whose claim to more than human sanction he held to be false. For the Sunday-school teacher whose views of the Bible have so changed that he cannot teach just what he believes without trouble, there is the easy resort of resignation. If the tendency of "higher criticism" on the character is such as to make hypocrites of those who accept its destructive conclusions, then for the good of *this* world, to say nothing of the next, such criticism should be discouraged by all who are interested in the present welfare of humanity. Let us rather believe, whatever our opinion of the claim of the Bible to divine origin, that those who are engaged in teaching it are honest men.

W. H. JOHNSON.

GRANVILLE, OHIO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "A. F. H.'s" advice to all teachers who have got hold of the higher criticism, or whom the higher criticism has gotten hold of, to quit the Sunday-school, seems rather rash. For one who might be put into that class, I do not find any difficulty in teaching in the Sunday-school, and have not felt called upon to teach what I do not believe. A careful reading of such a conservative paper as the *Sunday-School Times* might show "A. F. H." that a good many of its contributors would have run the risk of the stake in the days of Bruno and Servetus. The world moves—even the Sunday-school world. If Franz Delitzsch could teach in the Sunday-school, why may not many another "higher critic"?

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Why a man who loves righteousness, who has something of the spirit in him that was in the lofty minds of the Hebrew race, may not attempt to infuse that spirit into the youth of his own race by reading and commenting on the Old Testament, I cannot see. At least, do not let us advise all those who have a scientific interest in the Hebrew literature, as well as a desire to inculcate the highest truths of religion, to forego the latter because they have got more light on certain questions of Biblical criticism than their fathers had. No; let "B. E. H." keep his place in the Sunday-school as long as he feels within him the burning desire to be righteous and to teach others to be righteous. B.

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TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "A. F. H.," in the *Nation* of September 25, in commenting on "B. E. H.'s" letter two weeks before, seems to have shifted the issue to quite another question. "B. E. H." had taken the ground that we should be candid with the children of the Sunday-school, and not, either directly or by inevitable inference from our silence, teach them what we have ceased to believe; but his critic raises and discusses a very different question, namely, whether we should teach in the Sunday-school *what we do believe* if the children are as yet too young to appreciate the grounds of the belief. This is quite another question, but one worth discussing, and I beg, as a Unitarian minister and Sunday-school superintendent, to say a word on the other side.

Everything depends on the *attitude* towards the children. We agree that we are never, by word or by silence, to teach what we do not believe. But are we never to teach, on what must be *provisionally* bare authority, what we do believe, and what we believe has the warrant of the strongest evidence attainable outside of the mathematics? To say no, will place us in an awkward position on some other questions. The mother, then, must not care for her babe, the parents for their growing children, till these are able to understand the grounds for what is done. The science of one mind or generation can never get far beyond that of its predecessors because it can take nothing for granted, cannot enter into the inheritance of past generations as heir of all the ages, and build on their achievements, but must go back and start from the foundations again.

We see the absurdity of this in other directions; why do we fail to see it in theology or the science of religion? Why may I, if familiar with the evidence, say to a child, "Such and such facts are established in physics, or such and such are the laws of chemical combination; and you are to accept this until you are ready to examine the evidence," and not tell him, on grounds satisfactory to me, "A large part, certainly, of the stories in the Bible once held to be true are now to be taken as untrue"?

Two objections may be urged: (1) Why teach a child what he is too young to appreciate the argument for? To which it may be replied by asking another question, Why do for the babe according to our best but fallible wisdom during the months when it knows practically nothing? (2.) That it is unfair to bias the child's mind in the direction even of what we believe to be true. But life, and especially school life, is full, and, according to nature's own plan, it should seem, must be full, of such biassing; and to abandon it must be to reduce the child's instruction to a pitiful modicum, and, indeed, to stunt the very faculties and the mental grasp by which he may one day put these Q. E. D.'s to the test.

For, as I have hinted, the authority claimed was but *provisional*, and this fact must be in the forefront of our address to the children. The child has to take a good deal on the bare word of the pianist who is teaching it the rudiments of his art, but by and by it can put the instruction to the test. The fault we find with the Roman Catholic system is, not that it teaches the children with authority, for it must so teach them if it teaches at all, but that that authority *is never relaxed* till the hoary head drops into the grave. It ignores what the Apostle kept steadily in view, that those once children in years and in understanding ought one day to be treated as having come to maturity.

Therefore we will say to the children in the Sunday-school, as we should do in like case in the week-day school, "What we teach you about the Bible is not indeed (much of it) as certain as that 2 and 2 are 4, and there are learned men who take a different view; but to us the stronger evidence seems to favor this view. By and by you may weigh the evidence and judge for yourselves."

We Unitarians, then, do not admit that "criticism and the Sunday-school are incompatible," nor that Sunday-school teaching must be "disingenuous."—Respectfully yours,

H. D. C.

EASTPORT, ME., September 29, 1890.

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## THE BLIZZARD FOSSILS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A note on page 170 of the *Nation*, No. 1313, speaks of a novel suggestion made by Dr. Nehring in the *Naturwissenschaftliche Wochenschrift*, in which he attributes the cause of certain deposits of fossils to the "fossil blizzards." It is gratifying to me to know that an authority of such eminence has come to the conclusions there set forth, especially so since they confirm so emphatically what I had with some hesitation put forward some years ago on the same subject. My reasons for referring to the matter again are found in present interest as to the formation of the "bone beds," and in the question of priority in discovery of "the theory of blizzard fossils."

My first published mention of the matter occurs in the Annual Report of the Curator of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy to the President and Fellows of Harvard College for 1881-82, p. 16. It was published in September, 1882, shortly after my return from an expedition to the "Bad Lands" of Dakota, where I had seen in close proximity the bone-beds of the tertiary formations and those formed by the blizzards of 1881 and 1882. The reference in the report relates specially to the several genera of horses, of one to several toes.

"The more recent of these were found in such situations as to suggest the cause of extinction to have been a very severe winter, much more extensive and severe than those that occasionally, at long periods, are met with in the same section of country in modern times. If a winter so severe as to sweep away the cattle and horses were to visit the region, it would leave their remains crowded together in cañons, gulleys, ravines, and other sheltered places in the 'Bad Lands,' very much as the Pliocene mammals are found."

A few weeks later, the subject was brought before a meeting of the Boston Society of Natural History, of which I have not the report at hand. At this meeting, attention was called to particular bone basins formed of cattle in the Medicine Bow and Elk Mountain sections, and others of bisons, apparently from similar cause, in one of the parks.

In *Nature* of February 1, 1883, p. 313, in a letter on "A Possible Cause of the Extinction of the Horses of the Post-Tertiary," the instances were again mentioned, and the letter ended with the quotation given below, which will leave no doubt as to the cause assigned:

"Sections in the Post-Tertiary beds here and there disclosed groups or herds of fossil horses (*Equus*) in circumstances so similar as to leave no alternative to the conclusion that the same causes had filled the bone basins in the olden and most recent time. Stripped of the strata above them, the contour of the surface would have been similar, and the old-time coyotes in their feasting had evidently brought about an equal amount of confusion in the remains. About the time of the deposition of these fossils the horses became extinct. *Why*, is still an open question. Such evidence as was gathered there has led to the belief that, in that region, at least, occasional 'cold waves' of days—perhaps weeks—in duration, with deep snows, caused, or were the principal causes of, the extermination of the horses. Other causes that may be suggested are these: lack of water and an extended glacial period. A consideration of the character of the deposits, the drainage of the mountains at the time, the absence in these beds of proof of a glacial period affecting them since, and the continued existence in the same locality of other creatures, somewhat less sensitive to cold, would seem to be sufficient objections to their acceptance. The tradition of the Indians that there is a winter of terrible destruction to the animals once or twice in the lifetime of man—say once in about forty years—appears to be confirmed by the testimony of the whites. A few degrees or a few days added to the measure of the 'wave' or 'blizzard,' and a few inches added to the depth of the snow, would suffice to sweep the herds from the pastures. Weather of this character is a possibility every winter in the Bad Lands, though we hardly expect it. Apparently the rocks contain evidence of such weather in Post-Tertiary times. And it may not have differed so very much from that we are having to-day."

Unless Dr. Nehring has made earlier publication than that noticed, the first discovery of the theory of blizzard fossils can hardly be claimed for him. S. GARMAN.

CAMBRIDGE, October 3, 1890.

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## THE CENSUS IN THE KITCHEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of September 18 you express objections to the acceptance of returns in the household census from a servant of the family. Will it not improve the statistics and tend towards the elevation of the lower classes? The statistics and classifications of the family of which I am a member were given by the cook, who returned herself as "boarder."

O. P.

SAN FRANCISCO, September 30, 1890.

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## THE CORRUPTION OF FAMILY NAMES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a certain county of Kentucky lives a family known in their neighborhood by the name of Bat. The father is called "Jim Bat," while among the children are "Henry Bat," "Medley Bat," "Emma Bat," "Lee Bat," "Cora Bat," and others. Many of the people of the vicinity are not aware that the family owns another patronymic. On investigation, however, it may be learned that the true surname is Cansler. It appears that a generation ago the Cansler family was numerous in that part of the country, and that, in accordance with the Southern fondness for certain Christian names, the name of "James" was bestowed upon several of the children in the various branches. When the boys grew up, it became necessary to distinguish them by familiar titles, such as "Big Jim Cansler," "Red-headed Jim," etc. For some years a certain James Cansler lived alone, keeping "bachelor's hall," and thus acquired the distinctive appellation, "Jim Bach," which was soon modified into

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the more euphonious "Jim Bat." This name has clung to him to this day, notwithstanding his marriage, and has thus descended to his children.

This case seems somewhat analogous to that of the Enroughty family, reported in the *Nation* a few years ago, which excited a wide interest in the subject of the local corruption of family names. JOHN CLARENCE LEE.

GALESBURG, ILL.

## HYPHENATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I had just written an article about this matter when to-day I received the *Nation* for September 25, containing substantially the same statement from Mr. William W. Anderson as I had made in mine. I now throw my article into the waste-basket, but briefly state that I have for the last six years used the two hyphens in some of my books, especially in my treatise on Banking (written in Icelandic), and in my translation (into Icelandic) of Stuart Mill's book on Liberty.

I will further add that the introduction of the German double hyphen, besides unnecessarily annoying the compositor by adding a new box to his case, does not answer the purpose in any way better than the repeating of the hyphen at the beginning of the line.

JON OLAFSSON.

WINNIPEG, September 29, 1890.

# Notes.

MR. PAUL LEICESTER FORD of 97 Clark Street, Brooklyn, N. Y., being engaged in the preparation of an edition of the writings of Thomas Jefferson, and desiring to make it as complete as possible, requests that any one possessing any of Jefferson's letters or manuscripts will communicate with him. Or if such persons will either loan these to Mr. Ford for a few days, he will guarantee their safe return; or, if they will have them copied at his expense, and will enclose a bill, he will gladly pay for the copying, and give due credit for such assistance in the work.

Harper & Bros. have in press 'Modern Ghosts,' selected from Continental fiction; 'London Letters, and Some Others,' by George W. Smalley; 'Curiosities of the American Stage,' by Laurence Hutton; 'Christmas in Song, Sketch and Story'; 'A Selection from the Sonnets of Wordsworth,' illustrated by Alfred Parsons; Daudet's 'Port Tarascon,' in Henry James's translation; 'Strolls by Starlight and Sunshine,' by W. Hamilton Gibson; 'A Boy's Town,' being an autobiographic boy's story by W. D. Howells; and 'The Tsar and his People; or Social Life in Russia.'

New and cheaper editions of the late Eugene Schuyler's 'Peter the Great' and of Prof. N. S. Shaler's 'Aspects of the Earth' are announced by Charles Scribner's Sons, who have also under way 'The Lion's Club, and Other Verse,' by Richard Henry Stoddard; 'A Little Brother of the Rich, and Other Verses,' by Edward S. Martin; 'In the Footprints of Charles Lamb,' by Benjamin Ellis Martin; a 'Life of John Ericsson,' by Col. Wm. C. Church, in two volumes; 'Electricity in Daily Life'; 'How the Other Half Lives,' by Jacob A. Riis; and 'In Scripture Lands,' by Edward L. Wilson.

G. P. Putnam's Sons add to their previous announcements 'Cabin and Plantation Lays as Sung by the Hampton Students,' arranged by Thomas P. Fenner and S. G. Rathbun; 'English Fairy Tales,' collected by Joseph Jacobs; 'The Vikings in Western Christendom,' by C. F. Keary; and 'Under Orders, or the Trials and Triumphs of a Young Reporter,' by Kirk Munroe.

Mrs. Annie Nathan Meyer has edited, in notable collaboration with her own sex, 'Woman's Work in America,' which will be published by Henry Holt & Co. The several chapters touch on achievement in education, literature, journalism, medicine, politics, law, industry, and philanthropy.

D. Appleton & Co. issue this month the seventh and eighth volumes of Lecky's 'History of England in the Eighteenth Century,' and 'The Life of an Artist,' being a translation of the autobiography of Jules Breton, by Mary J. Serrano.

Justin McCarthy's 'From Charing Cross to St. Paul's,' illustrated by Joseph Pennell, will have the imprint of Macmillan & Co.

Charles E. Merrill & Co. have arranged with Mr. Ruskin's English publisher for the sole authorized edition of his works in this country, to be termed "The Brantwood Edition." To each volume an introduction will be furnished by Prof. Charles Eliot Norton.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will publish shortly 'Gospel Stories,' by Count Tolstoi; 'A Web of Gold,' by Miss Katharine Pearson Woods, author of 'Metzerott, Shoemaker'; and limited *éditions de luxe* of 'Tom Brown at Rugby' and 'Jane Eyre.'

'Millionaires of a Day,' an inside history of the great Southern California boom, by Theodore S. Van Dyke, and 'Murvale Eastman, Christian Socialist,' by Albion W. Tourgée, will be published during the present month by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

Mr. H. C. Bunner's recent stories in *Puck* are to be brought out in book form under the title, 'Short Sixes.'

Thomas Whittaker has nearly ready a second series of the 'Handbook of Biblical Difficulties.'

The third edition of Prof. Garnett's translation of 'Beowulf' (Ginn & Co.) will be accompanied by considerable additions to the bibliography.

The house of G. J. Göschen, Stuttgart, will soon issue 'Aus drei Ländern,' social pictures of Russia, France, and Germany, by Olga Wohlbrück, of the well-known family of German players.

The 'German Newspaper Directory' of Tobias Bros., New York, is a little thing for the side-pocket; but its statistical information is interesting. In the United States and Canada there are 774 newspapers published in the German language, exclusive of such as do not admit advertisements. The oldest, the *Gazette* of York, Pa., was founded in 1795. The totals which follow, and the names and order of States are curious: New York 117, Ohio 105, Pennsylvania 85, Illinois 85, Wisconsin 82.

Mr. G. J. Smith of the Washington English High School has prepared a tabulated 'Synopsis of English and American Literature' (Boston: Ginn) for the use of schools. It consists of dates of important events printed in parallel columns with the names and works of authors arranged topically; the poets in one group, the essayists in another, etc. There are over 100 pages. Comment is of the slightest, both in amount and value. Nothing more is aimed at than a table. In such a work there will always be some difference as to the names to be included in the case of minor writers; but Mr. Smith seems to have used good handbooks and has made no notable omissions. In the American department the standard is very much lower than in the English, as was natural, but it is to be regretted that this lack of discrimination between real and transitory worth should impair the value of the list of books recommended for popular reading.

G. P. Putnam's Sons are the American publishers of Mr. E. Conder Gray's 'Making the Best of Things, and Other Essays,' originally published under the title 'Idle Musings' (which now appears as a sub-title only), and noticed by us at the time of its first issue.

We have received from John Wiley & Sons two new mathematical treatises of more than ordinary interest. One is 'An Introduction to the Logic of Algebra, with Illustrative Exercises,' by Ellery W. Davis, Ph.D. (Johns Hopkins), Professor of Mathematics in the University of South Carolina. The book is, in one sense, not very extensive, containing only 119 pages, although these are of large octavo size; but the exceedingly abstract and condensed form in which everything is presented enables the author to cover a great range of investigation. The work is evidently the result of a vast deal of patient thought, and presents everything it treats in that form which seems most satisfactory to the author's own mind. Few, however, except professional mathematicians, could read the greater part of the book with profit, and they would often ask themselves the question, Is there not some easier and yet equally strict and scientific manner of treating the subject in hand? Yet such readers will find the book well worthy of study as the product of a mind of great mathematical power.

The other book is a treatise on 'Elliptic Functions,' by Prof. Arthur L. Baker of the Stevens Institute. The subject is one that has taxed to the utmost the powers of the mathematical giants of the last and the present century, Euler, Lagrange, Legendre, Jacobi, Cayley, and others. Prof. Baker calls his treatise "An Elementary Text-book for Students of Mathematics"; but the most elementary treatment of a subject which may be characterized as the highest development of the Integral Calculus, will necessarily be intelligible to only a small class. Too high praise cannot be given to the publishers for the mechanical execution of both these books.

The twentieth number of the Complete Index to *Littell's Living Age* (Philadelphia: Edward Roth) concludes the division of Literary Criticism, and embraces the whole of Metaphysics and Science. The next number, to be looked for presently, will complete Vol. I. Vol. II. will be issued rapidly during the coming year.

The second annual issue of *Academy Architecture* (New York: William Mueller) retains the original features of selections from the most prominent architectural drawings hung at the Royal Academy Exhibition, and of illustrations of English and Continental designs or buildings of recent years. In the first section we have samples of the drawings of Norman Shaw, and other lesser lights of the profession for civil, ecclesiastical, and domestic erections, including a project of a high relief by Charles B. Lawes, representing the United States of America, with several attributes, as, Liberty, Peace, Commerce, Indians, The Extinction of Slavery, etc. In the section called "Annual Architectural Review," we meet with important edifices by Mr. Waterhouse, a hall and a villa by Charles Garnier, a variety of Flemish and German town halls, Beltrami's accepted façade for the Milan Duomo, Swedish and Russian constructions, the Imperial Opera-house at Budapest, the Imperial Court Museum at Vienna, etc. Among all these, it need hardly be said, there are not a few warning examples.

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We have received in four parts the sixteenth volume of Proceedings of the United States Naval Institute at Annapolis. For the layman the most readable is Commander Henry Glass's humane paper on "Naval Administration in Alaska"—a leaf from his experience ten years ago in imposing civilization on a people neglected by Congress. The raid upon molasses stills, the enforcement of compulsory attendance at school, the healing a bloody hereditary feud between tribes, the overawing of miners until they came to prefer the "naval administration of justice" to any other—is all very simply but effectively related. It was even necessary to make a formal abolition of slavery, and to give immediate effect to it without compensation.

Mr. Sidney S. Rider, in his Providence *Book Notes* for September 27, begins an elaborate historical exposure of "The Great Land Conspiracy of the Seventeenth Century in Rhode Island," of which the first chapter is the William Harris lawsuit.

Mr. Henry F. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England," in the October number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, are again brilliant as touching famous American characters or families. He gives the will of Capt. George Popham, President of the Popham Colony; that of the mother of Samuel Gorton's wife, whose Christian and probably family names are thus discovered; that of Richard Seymor, husband of a hitherto unknown sister of Lawrence Washington, Rector of Purleigh. Other testaments besides these throw important light upon the families of Somers, Kent (of Newbury, Mass.), Whitehead (of Windsor, Conn.), Whipple (of Ipswich, Mass.), Spencer (of Salem, Mass.), Hooker (of Hartford, Conn.), the Virginia Lees, etc. On p. 382 of this number is given the inquest on Crispus Attucks, of Boston-Massacre fame, who is styled throughout "Michael Johnson," an alias now first revealed.

An earnest effort is making among the students at Harvard to raise a sum of money sufficient to build a reading-room in connection with the library, which will be commodious, well-ventilated, and lighted by electricity, so as to be available in the evening—a monstrous deficiency under existing arrangements. Every alumnus must feel interested in this long-deferred movement, and all who can aid it should do so. An imposing committee, representing each class from 1817 (that of the venerable George Bancroft) to 1889, has been named by way of sanction to the scheme, but for practical information it is enough to know that the treasurer is Mr. Moses Williams, whose address is Brookline, Mass. The amount to be raised is not less than $100,000.

The Boston Museum of Fine Arts has opened an exhibition of the Society of American Wood-Engravers, supplemented by an exhibition of old and modern wood-cuts from various sources. This will last till the end of November.

The American Folk-Lore Society will hold its annual meeting at Columbia College on November 28 and 29.

A subscriber asks what are the provisions of the new tariff respecting the importation of books. They are as follows: All books twenty years old in point of manufacture, and all books in foreign languages, are admitted free of duty. English books less than twenty years old are taxed 25 per cent. ad valorem.

—'Frieden! Frieden! Frieden!' ('Peace! Peace! Peace!') is the title of a pamphlet of seventy-eight pages by Leopold Katscher (Dresden: E. Pierson). It treats of two kinds of peace—peace in its literal sense, considered as a cessation of war, and peace, metaphorically, considered as a cessation of the industrial conflict between capital and labor. The author does not so much express his own views as he commends to his readers three books which he reviews and describes at some length. One of them is Bellamy's 'Looking Backward,' which he praises warmly, but considers too communistic and unpractical. More unreserved is his admiration of a German Utopian imagining, 'Freiland,' by Theodore Hertzka, which has some traits in common with Bellamy's, but is much larger (about 700 pages), and works out a much more detailed scheme. It has attracted a good deal of attention in Germany, and various translations of it have appeared, an English one being in preparation. It has already been discussed in these columns. The third book reviewed by Katscher is a novel called 'Die Waffen Nieder,' by an Austrian baroness, Bertha von Suttner, which, under the guise of fiction, is an eloquent and romantic indictment of the war policy of the European States and of war in general. The passages quoted give evidence of much vigor and of great logical acuteness; and while they may detract from the value of the work viewed simply as a novel, they enhance its weight as a contribution to the discussion of an important moral and political question. This book also has already been translated into Danish, French, Italian, and English; the English edition will be published at a popular price by the International Arbitration and Peace Society.

—Spelling reform, although persistently agitated for many years, has made but little headway in English. English critical journals still find amusement in pouncing on the awful American misdemeanor of spelling favor, color, and the like without a *u*. The Germans have taken much more kindly to phonetic changes, which were first proposed by the brothers Grimm; but as every writer and printer adopts only such innovations as commend themselves to his judgment, German spelling is in a rather chaotic condition. Silent letters, especially the *h*, are pretty generally dropped; thus, where only a few years ago one read "Heute roth morgen todt," we should now find "Heute rot morgen tot," etc. In the last number (September 15) of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* there is an entertaining and instructive article by M. A. Gazier, on "The Spelling of Our Fathers and that of Our Children," advocating a moderate and rational simplification of French orthography. The argument is an historical one. M. Gazier first reviews the condition of French orthography in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, showing, by a number of diverting passages, that not only kings, like Henri IV. and Louis XV. and XVI., and great ladies, like Mme. de Sévigné and Mme. de Montespan, were mere castaways in the matter of spelling, but that great writers like Bossuet, Racine, and even Voltaire spelled the same word two or three different ways and almost always incorrectly according to the present standards. Indeed, in the seventeenth century a candidate for a collegiate degree had no need to know French; to make the students better Latinists they were forbidden to speak French in their play hours. "You write French as if it were your mother tongue," said Chancellor Daguesseau in astonishment to our old friend Rollin, the author of the 'Ancient History.' The present French rigid orthography only dates from 1811, and was raised to its important position in the educational curriculum by the University of Napoleon and by the grammars and dictionaries of Noel and Chapsal, which are still in use as text-books in French and even in American schools. Projects for "ortografik" reform followed hard on the heels of the new régime; pamphlets advocating it appeared as early as 1827. A recent plan, submitted to the French Academy by M. Louis Havet, has the support, in some measure, of members of the Institute and professors of French at the Sorbonne and at the Collège de France; but the Academy cannot take any initiative: it can only register the decisions of the sovereign—that is, good usage. So far, good usage stands in the ancient ways and refuses to budge. M. Gazier proposes that the University, which first did the damage, shall take the first steps to apply the remedy. He suggests a few simple rules which could easily be adopted and would greatly simplify French spelling; but it would lead us too far to follow him into details. We must content ourselves with wishing him the success he deserves.

—Of the late Baron Dr. Johann von Lutz, Bavarian ex-Minister of the Interior, who died near Munich on September 3, in his 64th year, a correspondent writes:

"He was in all respects a remarkable man. His political career is an example of what unwitting good a powerful monarch can do to a nation by upholding a worthy man against the will of an ignorant or misled people. In spite of the strong and unceasing protests of the clerical Ultramontane majority in Bavaria, the late crazy King Ludwig kept this very liberal-minded Minister in power, and sanctioned all his prudent and progressive measures, during his entire reign. Lutz's chief political feats were the formation of the alliance with Prussia in 1866 in terms advantageous to Bavaria, his prompt support of the erection of the German Empire in 1870-71, and his suppression of the fanatic *Culturkampf* on the part of the Ultramontanes. Together with the Cabinet of his Department, he had control over all the universities, schools, and churches of the kingdom; and he brought all the influence of his vast information and learning to bear on this task. As a mere example of his knowledge on school questions, I recall a striking experience I had with him. I happened to mention the little University of Miami—President Harrison's Alma Mater, it will be remembered—to him without precisely recalling what State it was in, when Dr. Lutz remarked: "It is in Ohio, the smallest of the three State universities, I believe; and it has about seventy students." When one considers that there are twenty-three so-called universities in Ohio, and who knows how many colleges, and that there are forty more States, each, perhaps, with a like number of institutions, one can conceive to some extent the knowledge of a man whose mind had to grasp the school systems of all the States of Europe and Asia besides. A Catholic himself, he protected the late Dr. Döllinger in establishing his Old-Catholic schism from Rome. When King Ludwig died, the Ultramontane party was jubilant at the coming fall of their pet foe. But instead of that the present Prince Regent, though Ultramontane in his tendencies, took the old Minister into his favor, as much so as his more radical predecessor, and made strenuous efforts to retain him in office at the beginning of the present year; but Baron Lutz was failing in health, and retirement had to be granted him. The ex-Minister leaves behind him a grown-up son, and a widow, his second wife, whom he married only three years ago."

## FARMER'S SLANG DICTIONARY.

*Slang and Its Analogues, Past and Present:* A Dictionary, Historical and Comparative, of the Heterodox Speech of all Classes of Society for more than Three Hundred Years. With Synonyms in English, French, German, Italian, etc. Compiled and edited by John S. Farmer. Vol. I.—A to Byz. London: Printed for Subscribers only. 1890.

THE present is certainly an age of dictionaries. Old ones are undergoing constant revision, and

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new ones are projected on a colossal scale. The 'Encyclopedic Dictionary,' which bears the name of the firm of Cassell, by which it is published, was recently brought out in several volumes. The somewhat similar but larger one of the Century Company is more than half finished. That of the Philological Society, planned on even a grander scale than the others, has many years of labor to be spent upon it before it can be even in sight of its completion. Besides, there is projected a Dialect Dictionary, which is to gather together the words and phrases which do not fall properly within the scope of the others, and will, it is expected, put into shape for permanent preservation that decaying speech of the illiterate rural population of England which is now slowly disappearing before the advance of the language of literature.

The work which is now before us is of a different character from any of these. It is the first volume of a dictionary to be devoted to the collection and definition of slang words. It embraces only the letters A and B. It is evident from this single fact that it is no small field which the completed work is expected to cover. Slang dictionaries we have had before, but none on any such scale as this.

The editor of the work has been previously known by a volume of somewhat similar nature entitled 'Americanisms, Old and New.' He brings to the performance of the task he has set before himself several valuable qualities. He has the heartiest interest in his subject; he has enthusiasm and industry. But while these are in themselves most desirable qualities, they are unfortunately not the qualities most desirable in the intellectual equipment of one who attempts to carry through successfully an undertaking of this kind. It needs, in truth, a special training, much beyond that of the ordinary lexicographer. But even the training of the ordinary lexicographer the compiler gives little indication of possessing. At the very outset suspicion is aroused by the title of his work. "Slang" has a reasonably limited meaning; but "analogues" is comprehensive enough to cover almost anything and everything. Under its protection there is hardly any reason except the caprice of the compiler for restricting the number of volumes.

There is, indeed, no question that it is not an easy matter to define the exact limits of a work of this character. No small share of what in its origin is slang is adopted at last into the language of literature; but while it is passing through the transitional stage it is not always clear in which class it is to be reckoned. The history of the term itself is evidence of this fact, for while the thing represented is old, the particular word that represents it is comparatively new—in its modern meaning very new. "Slang," in the sense of the cant language of thieves, appears in print certainly as early as the middle of the last century. It was included by Grose in his 'Dictionary of the Vulgar Tongue,' published in 1785. But it was many years after before it was allowed a place in any vocabulary of our speech that confined itself to the language of good speakers and writers. Its absence from such works would not necessarily imply that it had not been in use, and in frequent use. Still, that this never had been the case we have direct evidence. Scott, in his novel of 'Redgauntlet,' which appeared in 1824, when using the word, felt the necessity of defining it; and his definition shows not only that it was generally unknown, but that it had not then begun to depart at all from its original sense. In the thirteenth chapter of that work, one of the characters is represented as trying to overhear a conversation that is going on, but finds it of no avail, for, according to the story, "what did actually reach his ears was disguised so completely by the use of cant words and the thieves' Latin called slang, that even when he caught the words, he found himself as far as ever from the sense of their conversation." No one who is now accustomed either to speak slang or to speak of the users of it, would think of connecting it with anything peculiar to the language of thieves. Yet it is clear from this one quotation that the complete change of meaning which the term has undergone has taken place within a good deal less than sixty years. Even the sense which it now has is not recognized in a dictionary as late as Worcester's. There it is defined as "vile, low, or ribald language; the cant of sharpers or of the vulgar; gibberish."

In his uncertainty as to what shou'd be regarded as slang and what should not, the compiler resorts to an expedient that is more conducive to his own ease than to the reader's confidence. He first divides the colloquial speech into three great classes—dialectical, technical, and slang—and then informs us that, "after careful consideration," he has adopted, "as a standard between literary and non-literary English, Annandale's edition of Ogilvie's Imperial English Dictionary." Words and phrases that appear in that work can be used with safety by us all. Neither slang nor its analogues are expected to be found within its sacred enclosure. This is certainly cutting the Gordian knot with a vengeance. The divisions given of colloquial English are themselves calculated to excite a certain degree of surprise. Those of us who humbly profess to speak it are apparently cut off from the use of any but dialectical, technical, and slang words. To the painful purists who pride themselves on the avoidance of all these, will be committed the exclusive employment of that high-polite language about which not even the scent of anything colloquial lingers. Still, it is the work which is set up as an authority that will cause most astonishment. The 'Imperial' is little else than an enlarged and glorified Webster. Its material is so plainly based upon the collections made for the latter dictionary that it could not be sold in this country without the consent of the owners of the Webster copyright. It is a useful and valuable work; but to turn it into a court of appeals inevitably begets a feeling of wonder as to what must have been the linguistic training of him who is disposed to recognize it in this capacity. Webster, Worcester, and the 'Imperial' are all dictionaries worth consulting, and worth consulting constantly; but it is only in the most remote recesses of the rural districts that we should expect any one of them to be regarded as a final authority.

The same muddled ideas which affect the nature of the work undertaken affect also its execution. Difficult as it may be to tell what slang *is*, it is comparatively easy to tell what it is not. To the latter class belong words imported from foreign tongues to denote an idea that no word in the native tongue quite expresses. In what way can *blasé*, found in this dictionary, fall under any possible definition of slang? Or how can the Latin *adsum*, used in certain schools to answer one's name at roll-call, be so classed? Or, can the term be properly applied to the description of a gesture of contempt, such as *biting the thumb?* It is even worse to treat as slang, or as remotely related to it, words and idiomatic phrases that are now part and parcel of the language of literature, and in many cases have been so for centuries. Yet we have included in this volume such common idioms, among others, as *to scrape acquaintance with*, *to be at sea*, and *to go against the grain*. There is a peculiar perversity in this treatment of the subject, for in several instances illustrations of the usage are selected from the best writers, and the words and phrases themselves are all to be found in the 'Imperial Dictionary,' which was to furnish the dividing line between orthodox and heterodox English. From criticism of this sort the compiler may seek to protect himself by maintaining that such expressions are not slang, but its analogues. But if they are of that nature—and the comprehensive title, it must be confessed, covers almost everything—he will have to encounter equal censure for leaving out an immense body of similar phrases of which he has not taken the slightest notice. Hence, between the Scylla of trying to do what he has no business to do, and the Charybdis of not doing what on his own theory he ought to have done, he cannot well escape from being wrecked in these dangerous waters.

The work is further marked in many cases by the incompleteness of the information it gives, and sometimes by its inaccuracy, when a very little research would have enabled the author to ascertain the precise facts. A *Broughtonian*, we are informed, is a pugilist, and the name comes from Broughton, "once the best boxer of his day." The inquirer will naturally ask when was his day. He will get no answer from this work, although it would have been a matter of no difficulty to secure the needed information about the father of British pugilism. Again, to illustrate the word *bull* in its Stock Exchange usage, the first quotation in which it is employed is taken from Colley Cibber's play of "The Refusal." But, instead of giving its date, 1721—the all-important and easily ascertained thing—we are furnished instead with the dates of the author's birth and death; and as he lived for nearly ninety years, this does not fix with much precision when this meaning of the term first came into being, according to the compiler's authorities. *Blue Skin*, it is here said, was formerly a contemptuous term for a Presbyterian. No authority is furnished for the assertion, for the single quotation given—one from 'Hudibras'—contains the adjective and not the noun. But assuming it to be correct, what can be the possible meaning of the further statement that "blue is still the Presbyterian color, and is used as an adjective by them in describing books and people"? The *Black Joke* is defined as the name of a song about 1811. To say nothing of other instances, it is mentioned by Pope in a poem published in the year 1737. It is not a matter of any consequence, save as an exemplification of inaccuracy where accuracy is attainable with the least possible trouble, that Fielding's novel of 'Tom Jones' is dated 1750 instead of 1749.

Even more remarkable is the skill sometimes displayed in missing the exact meaning or origin of phrases. *Blaze away*, the sense of which it seems impossible to mistake, is calmly defined as "Look sharp: stir your stumps—an injunction to renewed and more effective effort." *An affair of honor* is defined as "killing an innocent man in a duel." *Begosh* is put down as an expletive, "probably of negro origin"; and yet this very work contains later the oath *by gosh*, with an English quotation from the early part of this century. The author on one occasion takes an excursion into the field of Biblical criticism, and gives us to understand that Beelzebub found in the Gospel of Matthew should be Beelzebul, and traces

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the origin of the misreading to the original Hebrew. A work of this sort is not quite the one where we should expect to find corrections of the Revised Version. Still, in spite of the Semitic lore displayed in this instance, there are other places that lead to the suspicion that the compiler is not especially strong in Scripture. There is certainly a general impression that St. Paul is responsible for the statement that "the love of money is the root of all evil." But here, under the word *actual*, we find the ignorantly abbreviated form of the sentence—"Money is the root of all evil"—put down as an "old saw."

Naturally, errors of this kind are most conspicuous—at least they are most conspicuous to us—in the definitions of Americanisms. An occasional characteristic is the complete reversal of the real meaning. *Boodler* is defined not as one who receives boodle, but as one who offers it. Instead of the bribe-taker, he is turned here into the bribe-giver. The soldiers of the Northern army will be astounded to find from this work that *bushwhacker* was a designation applied to them as well as to the guerilla troops of the South. A curious confusion with the word *Copperhead* is shown in the statement that *Butternuts* denoted "the sympathizers with the South in the North and the Middle States during the American civil war." It will be observed that on this authority the Middle States did not constitute a part of the North. But the most extraordinary instance of misplaced misinformation occurs in the attempt to give an explanation of the origin of the verb *blenker*, used during the civil war in the sense of 'to plunder.' It so closely resembles the philological wisdom of many more pretentious works that it is worth quoting in full. "Possibly allied," says the editor, "to the Northern provincialism *blenk*, 'a trick' or 'stratagem.' *Blenk* was also used in *Morte d'Arthur* in the sense of 'to bilk,' or 'cheat.'" It is sufficient to say that the term as used during the civil war originated in the plundering habits ascribed, justly or unjustly, to a body of troops in the Northern Army commanded by Gen. Blenker. The effort to explain the derivation of this word was made by calling in the aid of philology. Of the origin of the phrase now to be given there is a highly philosophical and somewhat sentimental account furnished. This is the expression *about east* in the sense of "about right." The phrase, we are informed, arose from the fact that "to the frontiersman and pioneer the Eastern or New England States are typical of all he cherishes most and loves best." There is a good deal more about the way these men turn with undying affection to that region. It is evident that the compiler of this work has not the faintest glimmering of the opinion of itself and of other parts of the country that pervades the Western mind. He may rest assured that whatever currency the phrase *about east* has, it is not the West that gave it life or keeps it in circulation.

In truth, it is the list of Americanisms in this volume that confounds us more than any other one characteristic. As we light upon term after term that we have never seen in print, or heard in conversation, or heard of as being used by living men, we are more and more impressed with the fact that the only way to learn the peculiarities of speech in this country is to go to England and consult English books and newspapers. We do not venture to deny that there may be authority for all the words and meanings that are here imputed to the inhabitants of this continent; but if so, it is perfectly certain that the usage prevalent in some special district or at some special period of time has been treated as if it were characteristic of all the people at all periods. *To blow one's bazoo* is an expression found in Bartlett's Dictionary, and is there credited to Tennessee. Here it is simply put down as an Americanism. This is very much as if a phrase peculiar to Cornwall should be cited as belonging to the colloquial speech of the British empire. There has, indeed, been scarcely any discrimination exercised in separating the individual from the general, or the local from the national. In more than one instance the chance coinage of some one person appears to have been carefully registered as if it were part of the speech of all. We mention some of these words and phrases, which may possibly be known to a few, but will certainly seem strange to most. There is *abound*, in the sense of 'to be prominent'; *abskize*, 'to depart'; the noun *accumulatives*, which is not defined, but seems from certain vague remarks under it to be connected with "journalistic sparring matches"; *acquisitive* used as a noun in the sense of 'plunder'; *afterclap*, meaning the attempt to extort unjustly more in a bargain than was at first agreed upon; *bedoozle*, 'to bewilder'; *bell mare*, 'a political leader,' apparently a variant of 'war-horse'; and *bloviate*, 'to talk aimlessly and boastingly.' All of these may exist or may have had an existence, though in not a single instance is there any illustrative quotation given of their usage in this country. But it is ridiculous to speak of them as Americanisms in the proper sense of the word. Some of them are probably the creation of a particular writer, and only found in what he has written. All of them belong to that class of expressions which spring up constantly both in England and America and last but for a day or two. They then entirely disappear from sight and memory, unless they chance to fall under the eye of some lexicographer at the time of their appearance. Embalmed in his work, they then continue to maintain a mummy-like existence for all time.

Other deficiencies there are in this work which sadly detract from its value as an authority. To return, for instance, to Americanisms: not only are we credited with terms which most, and perhaps all of us, know nothing about, but genuine words and phrases, born of the soil—such as *big bugs*, *boom*, and *to get down to the bed-rock*—are included here without any mention of their place of origin. In truth, it is with a good deal of disappointment that we find the work failing to come up in any reasonable degree to the standard which it might fairly have been expected to reach. Its shortcomings are the more unfortunate because the compiler has, as we have said, a most genuine interest in his subject, and the subject is one that demands a fuller and more philosophical treatment than it has yet received. Slang is really the source from which language recruits its decaying energies. It is often weak, often silly, sometimes vulgar; but in the countless number of words and phrases of this nature that are constantly appearing and disappearing there is always a modicum worthy of permanent preservation. This says clearly or concisely or forcibly what the literary speech says obscurely or diffusely or feebly. From the very fact, however, that in its origin slang lives entirely in the mouths of men, and in consequence undergoes constant and sudden changes of meaning, it is all-important that what meanings it has should be clearly ascertained and accurately stated; and this is something the volume before us too often fails to do.

Still, while it is impossible to praise this work as an absolutely trustworthy authority, there is no question that it will be found interesting. It contains, moreover, a good deal of matter that is of permanent value. There is no reason, indeed, why, with proper care, an immense improvement should not be shown in succeeding volumes in the absolutely important matter of accuracy. With this secured we can afford to forgive the mistake of bringing together, under the term "slang," words and phrases which have no real connection with the subject. The compiler, in his prefatory note defending the title of the work, speaks with a good deal of asperity of "those critics who, without examination, seek to decry and put aside that which it has cost years of labor and research to produce." Critics are a hardened race, and it is not upon them that words like these will have much effect. Moreover, it is to be feared that the greatest commendation of this production will come from those of their number who review it without examination. Yet to this extent the compiler is justified, that every dictionary must be more or less full of faults, full of errors of omission and of commission, no matter how profound is the knowledge of those concerned in its production, no matter how much time and thought have been spent upon its details. The objections in this case are not that the work contains errors, but contains errors which the slightest labor or research would have rendered it an impossibility to commit. Defects of such a character can easily be remedied, however, and we are sufficiently interested in the undertaking, and sufficiently unmoved by the detestation which the editor feels for his critics, to wish and hope that future volumes will be found worthy of commendation in the very particulars where this one has been made the subject of censure.

## PSYCHOPHYSICS.

*Rapporteur Esthétique* de M. Charles Henry, permettant l'étude et la rectification esthétique de toute forme. Paris: G. Séguin. 12mo, pp. 22.

*Cercle Chromatique* de M. Charles Henry, présentant tous les compléments et toutes les harmonies des couleurs, avec une introduction sur la théorie générale du contraste, du rhythme et de la mesure. Paris: Charles Verdin. 12mo, pp. 168.

M. CHARLES HENRY occupies the position of "Bibliothécaire à la Sorbonne," and is also entitled to several other honorable marks of distinction. His investigations in the history of mathematics have been very extensive, and from 1878 down to the present time the *Revue Archéologique*, the *Bulletin des Sciences Mathématiques*, the *Revue Scientifique*, and many other scientific periodicals, the *Actes* of various learned societies, and several independent volumes bear witness to his industry and learning. He has published accounts of many almost, sometimes quite, unknown MSS. of great historical interest in Arabic, Greek, Latin, and various modern languages. Several of these he has edited and published in full, with learned introductions and notes. He has also given to the world a large amount of hitherto unpublished letters and correspondence of celebrated men of science, Euler, D'Alembert, Laplace, Lagrange, and many others. He is at present engaged, in association with M. Paul Tannery, in editing the works of the celebrated mathematician Fermat, the first volume of which, in 4to, was published a few months ago by the French Government.

The little books before us give abundant

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evidence that M. Henry is by nature largely endowed with the inventive, mechanical, and mathematical faculties, and richly equipped with the learning of the past and the positive, experimental knowledge of the present. The problem which he has attempted to solve is the reduction of the science of "psychophysics" (or, as some might prefer to call it, "physical psychology") to a definite mathematical form. He has formed a theory of the relations existing between sensation and mental action—a theory not based upon metaphysical reasoning, not relying upon appeals to the "inner consciousness" of the individual, but upon indisputable facts in the physical structure of the outer world and in the organization of living beings. He would do for the mechanics of psychical action what the mathematicians have done for the mechanics of physical action, and would study the soul as the mathematician studies a machine. The science of psychophysics deals only with phenomena; with the essence and nature of the soul in the metaphysical sense, it has nothing to do. The name "psychophysics" was first proposed by Gustav Theodor Fechner, in his epoch-making 'Elemente der Psychophysik' (Leipzig, 1860). The object of that work was to discover and formulate a measure of sensation. M. Henry deduces the same results from his own theory, but his method is entirely different from that of Fechner, more far-reaching and profound. We must necessarily confine ourselves to very general statements in regard to M. Henry's theory.

Every attempt to investigate the relations between the soul and the body must start with the assumption that every idea, every emotion, is accompanied by some physiological change. The direct investigation of these changes is in most cases impossible and always difficult, laborious, and sometimes dangerous. The exterior manifestations of the interior work are alone open to us. The only things which we can represent and study scientifically are movements. The first step, then, in the formation of an exact science of psychic action is the establishment of definite and precise relations between the psychic functions and external movements; these latter are alone susceptible of measurement and calculation. Without movement no sensation, no idea, is possible. It is, then, in the movements of the living organism that we must seek for the key to the psychic functions of the living being. Now, the only movements which the living being can describe are circular movements, or, as M. Henry prefers to call them, "cyclic movements," in order to keep in view the fact that in any given case the movement is always in one direction. Confining our attention to the human being, all our movements reduce themselves to those of the lever: the bones are the levers, the muscles are the powers, the weight of the limbs or the bodies upon which our force is exercised are the resistances, the joints are the fulcrums or points of rotation; but in every case the movement is cyclic. The description, by a single, simple, continuous motion, of a straight line or of any curve line except a cycle or a cyclic arc—that is, a circle or a circular arc described in one direction—is for the human being an impossibility. The reader may perhaps ask, Cannot I take a pencil and draw an at least approximately straight line and various curved lines which, whatever they may be, are not circular arcs? Certainly, but the upper arm can only describe cyclic arcs about the shoulder as a centre; the lower arm can only describe cyclic arcs about the elbow as a centre; it is only because the cyclic movement of the upper arm continuously shifts the position of the centre about which the cyclic movement of the lower arm is performed, that the hand is made to move in a straight line or some other than a cyclic curve.

Not only are all the movements of the human being limited to cycles and combinations of cyclic movements, but there is no continuous rotation of one piece upon another as in a machine. Among the cycles which the living being is able to describe, M. Henry makes a distinction between great and small cycles, analogous to the great and small circles on the sphere, but we have no space to explain it; enough that the distinction is not a matter of arbitrary definition or hypothesis, but is only a mathematical way of presenting facts in our physical organism. Small cycles can be described continuously, great ones only discontinuously. In describing a great cycle there are always points where the movement is arrested, and can only be continued by a readjustment of our organs. The distinction between movements which the living being can describe continuously and those which it can only describe discontinuously, is one of the fundamental points in M. Henry's theory.

His next fundamental proposition is, that the living being expresses or represents every variation of physiological work by some change in the direction of its force. To the different excitations of the nervous system correspond different directions. "Direction is the representative element common to all sensation." When the directions differ at the maximum or minimum, successively or simultaneously, there is *contrast;* when they differ by certain definite angles, there is *rhythm;* when they may be expressed by denominators of certain fractions denoting certain parts of a cycle, there is *measure.* These three subjective functions, common to all the nervous reactions of the living being, M. Henry has endeavored to reduce to a mathematical form and express in a calculus of numbers. All those excitations of the nervous system which have most engaged the attention of mathematicians, physiologists, physicists, and artists, such as forms, lights, colors, sounds, are subjected to his processes. The phenomena known under the names of optical illusions, consonance, dissonance, modes (major and minor), harmony, and many others are shown to be but particular cases of his three functions of contrast, rhythm, and measure.

In explaining how the living being expresses or "represents" its inward work by its outward movements, M. Henry makes a distinction, which runs through his whole theory, between movements which are *dynamogenic* and those which are *inhibitory.* The human being exercises his force by preference in certain directions. Movements in certain directions are easy, agreeable, or, as the phrase is, natural. Such directions are dynamogenic. The opposite directions are more difficult, less agreeable; movement in those directions is more or less hindered. Such directions are inhibitory. The distinction is the result of the physical organization of the human being. Walking forward or backward may serve as a simple example. So, too, M. Henry states, experiments with the dynamometer show that a person striking upward, other things being equal, always registers a higher number than when he strikes downward. The human being is essentially dissymmetric. In the normally organized human being the right side is stronger than the left. Direction towards the right or from left to right is dynamogenic, from right to left inhibitory. Left-handedness is sometimes congenital, but it is sometimes merely temporary, and often, when permanent, is the result of accidental or pathological causes.

As M. Henry has shown (or rather it had already been shown by other physiologists) that all the elementary movements of the human being are assimilable to those of the compasses—that is, are circular or cyclic; and as he also has shown that certain directions are dynamogenic—that is, easy, pleasing, natural—while their opposites are inhibitory, or difficult, disagreeable, exceptional, the question arises, Are not certain divisions of the circumference (and all directions may be represented by the divisions of the circumference) natural, and based upon the organization of the human being? The division of the circumference into 2, 4, 8 equal parts, or into any number of equal parts expressible by a power of 2, as also its division into 3, 5, 6, 10, 12, and 15 equal parts, was known to geometers long before Euclid. These divisions can all be accomplished by the processes of elementary geometry—that is, with no other instruments than the ruler and the compasses. But the division of the circumference into 7, 9, 11, 13 equal parts is impossible with the ruler and compasses only. At the beginning of the present century Gauss demonstrated that with the ruler and compasses the circumference of a circle can be divided into any number of equal parts expressible by a power of 2 with 1 added to it, provided the number so obtained is a prime number. Thus, 256 is the 8th power of 2; adding 1 gives 257, and 257 is a prime number. Gauss showed that with the ruler and compasses a regular polygon of 257 sides could be inscribed in a circle—that is, that the circumference could be divided into 257 equal parts. This has often been characterized by mathematicians as the greatest discovery in elementary geometry that has been made since Euclid. We need enter no further into the mathematics of the subject. The numbers which express the divisions of the circumference that can be accomplished by the ruler and the compasses are called by M. Henry "rhythmic numbers," and play a great part in his system.

We can now understand the nature of his Æsthetic Protractor (*Rapporteur esthétique*). An ordinary protractor used by surveyors is an instrument for plotting angles on paper. It is generally in the form of a semicircle divided into degrees. Sometimes it is a whole circle, and instruments of different sizes are made. The essential feature of M. Henry's protractor is its graduation. Instead of being divided, like an ordinary protractor, into degrees, its divisions correspond to the rhythmic numbers. Accompanying it is an instrument called a "Triple Decimeter" used in measuring lines. Now suppose a form (or, as it is usually called, a figure) on paper is presented, and the question is asked, Is it a pleasing figure or not? With most people the decision would be wholly based upon sentiment. But M. Henry takes the figure and measures its various angles with his protractor, its lines with his decimeter; he subjects these data to certain fixed arithmetical operations, and he gets a single number as his answer. That number expresses the rhythm of the form. He turns to his tables of rhythmic numbers. If his answer is found in the tables, the form is good; if not, it is bad.

What M. Henry claims to do with his æsthetic protractor for forms he claims to do, by means of his chromatic circle, for colors. The presence of three fundamental colors in the spectrum by the combination of which all the

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other tints, tones, shades, etc,, are produced, is generally asserted, or admitted, or assumed by all the great physicists who have investigated the phenomena of light. Many of them have constructed chromatic circles, chromatic tops, and other instruments to illustrate their theories. But as to what the fundamental colors are there is great diversity of opinion. Brewster, Clerk Maxwell, Helmholtz, Chevreul, and others have arrived at different conclusions. There seems no prospect of determining the question by experiment. M. Henry attacks the problem in an entirely different manner. Having connected the psychic functions with directions in the manner which we have roughly and inadequately indicated above, having further shown that the forms of perception can be reduced to certain numerical formulæ, he proceeds to analyze the visual sensation, and then constructs his chromatic circle as a deduction from his theory. Finally, he shows that the results of his theory accord with the results of experience, and brings into orderly arrangement what before was a confused mass of isolated facts.

One of the experiments, or series of experiments, mentioned by M. Henry, is so interesting, so important in its bearings, and yet so easily understood, that we will endeavor to make room for it. It is due to the ingenuity of M. Charpentier, one of the most distinguished French physicists. The observer is so placed that the only light which reaches his eye is through four very minute holes, each one less than the hundredth of an inch in diameter. The holes are so situated as to form the four corners of a little square about the twenty-fifth of an inch on a side. The eye of the observer is about eight inches from the hole—that is, at the distance at which the vision of the normal human eye is most acute. When the holes are illuminated with a very feeble light, the observer sees nothing at all. As the intensity of the light is gradually increased, he first sees a faint spot of more or less diffused light. It makes no difference what the color of the light employed may be; a simply luminous spot appears before any appearance of color can be distinguished. As the intensity of the light is gradually increased, when it has reached a considerable higher degree the observer is able to distinguish with certainty what the color of the light is. He still, however, only sees a spot of colored light. As the intensity of the light goes on gradually increasing, the observer is finally able to distinguish the holes and to see that they form a square. Many other remarkable differences between the sensations of luminosity, of color, and of form, for which we have no room, are pointed out.

Having constructed his chromatic circle upon theoretical principles, M. Henry proceeds to examine and explain a great number of optical phenomena: the differences between colored lights and colored pigments, irradiation and the means of avoiding its effects, the illuminating power of the different parts of the spectrum, binocular vision, the salient and indented appearances of stained-glass window-panes, the different laws that govern mixtures of colored lights and mixtures of colored pigments, the relations between light and vegetation, etc., etc.

Passing from the visual to the auditive sense, M. Henry treats the latter in essentially the same manner as the former. Consonance, dissonance, temperament, scales, modes (major and minor) are only realizations of mathematical formulæ based upon those fundamental numbers which are the abstract representatives of the forms of perception of the human being as manifested in his movements; they are only special cases of contrast, rhythm, and measure. The details of all this we are obliged to pass over. But there is one point, of great interest to students both of music and physics, which seems worthy of notice. If we start with any fixed tone, which we may call C, we can derive from it, without making use of any intervals except the octave and perfect fifth, a series of notes which, when reduced into the same octave, form a musical scale. Its invention is attributed to the Greek philosopher Pythagoras, and it is often called the Pythagorean scale. The fact undoubtedly is, that Pythagoras gave a scientific explanation of the scale universally used by the Greek musicians. It is also sometimes called the Greek scale. For all the purposes of harmonic music, or music of more than a single part, this scale is entirely unsuited. The intervals of the fourth and the fifth are perfect, but the major thirds, major sixths, and major sevenths are too sharp, the minor thirds and minor sixths are too flat. Hence the Greeks had no harmonic music. When two or more persons sang or played together, they always sang or played in unison or in octaves. They sang and played tunes without end; of chords they made no practical use. When the singer accompanied himself on the lyre, he played on the instrument the same notes that he sang with the voice. Of accompaniment in the modern sense he knew nothing.

How came the Greeks to adopt a musical scale which rendered harmony impossible? In 1869 MM. Cornu and Mercadier, two eminent French physicists, laid before the French Academy of Sciences the results at which they had arrived after a long series of experiments, in which they had been aided by amateur and professional violinists and 'cellists. These conclusions were: Musical intervals belong to at least two different systems of different values; violinists and 'cellists when playing unaccompanied melodies without modulations employ the Pythagorean intervals, or, in other words, they play a simple tune on the violin as a Greek would have played it on his lyre; when sounding two notes of different pitch together in "double-stopping," they employ the intervals required by the laws of physics, or, in technical language, the intervals of "just intonation." Many circumstances, especially the greater or less delicacy of ear in appreciating intervals on the part of the player, of course modify these rules in actual practice.

These conclusions of MM. Cornu and Mercadier have given rise to a vast deal of controversy, in which, on the whole, the participants, when artists, have sided with MM. Cornu and Mercadier; when physicists, have disputed them. Let us see what is the result of the application to them of M. Henry's theory. In his theory of contrast he makes a distinction between simultaneous and successive contrast. The distinction is based upon the organization of the human being, and upon the movements by which he represents his psychical operations. It is general, not made to meet any particular case, and is as applicable to the visual as to the auditive sensations. According as the contrast is of the one or the other kind, the result is different. Applied to the phenomena of sound, when two tones of different pitch are heard together, we have a case of simultaneous contrast; when one is heard after the other, we have a case of successive contrast. From the principles of the latter M. Henry "ciphers out" the Pythagorean scale, showing that it is founded in human nature, thus corroborating the conclusions of MM. Cornu and Mercadier, and justifying the æsthetic intuition of the artists and of the Greeks.

"I hope," says M. Henry, "that no one will reiterate in my case the accusation which the stupidity of every age has directed against the efforts to give a rational explanation of taste; that no one will pretend that I wish to substitute for the creation of the artist the mechanism of an instrument. Genius is inimitable, for it expresses itself not only by visible rhythms, but by an infinity of rhythms more or less invisible; is it any the less necessary to give definiteness to the manifestations of harmony, to show the complexity of their beauty, and to aid the feeling for them? Art is not alone interested in this work; it concerns our life itself. The artist is only an eye, an ear, a nervous system normally organized and developed; he feels the rhythm, and because he feels it, because the idea is a virtual realization, he produces it externally. He feels the rhythm and produces it better in proportion as his environment is more normal, more harmonic. It it is not the schools, but brilliant social conditions like life in Greece or at the Renaissance, that produce the great periods of art. Reciprocally, to aid the normal development of art is by so much to favor the realization, still far distant, of our destiny, the creation of universal harmony."

## MORE FICTION.

*Day and Night Stories.* By T. R. Sullivan. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*A Little Worldling.* By Ellis Worth. American News Co.

*A Foreign Match.* By Madame Bigot (Mary Healy). Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

*The Feet of Love.* By Anne Reeve Aldrich. Worthington Co.

*The Salt Master of Lüneburg.* By Julius Wolff. Translated from the 21st German edition by W. Henry and Elizabeth R. Winslow. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

*Uranie.* By Camille Flammarion. Translated from the French by Mary J. Serrano. New York: Cassell Publishing Co.

*The Princess of Montserrat.* By William Drysdale. Albany, N. Y.: Albany Book Co.

MR. SULLIVAN'S stories are already so favorably known through the magazines that the collection of seven of them in the volume before us will be to many readers simply a reunion of old friends. To others, who turn affrighted from the appalling mass of contemporary magazine writings, fearful of being drawn from all other reading, once engulfed in that limitless torrent, the present volume will be a royal road to a cheerful hour. No man deserves better of his fellow-men at the present day than he who writes a good short story. Mr. Sullivan's impress one at once by their distinction of both substance and form. His style, without running into any Gallicisms—that passionately loved and encouraged fault of our most finished story-writers—has a finesse, an accuracy, which we are used to associate with the French story. One perforce pauses from attending to the gist of the matter (albeit that is not allowed to weaken) to admire the chosen perfectness of the words, the ripe cultivation of the style. Yet nothing could be further from formalism. The language and arrangement are as natural and clear as they are refined. The story remains the leading affair, and if any one neglects it for a moment, it is not Mr. Sullivan, as a showman of grammar and rhetoric, but the reader, and that upon the gentle compulsion of the charm of good writing. While Mr. Sullivan's invention is everywhere ingenious, our private leaning is to those of his stories which do not touch upon the supernatural. Of the latter, "Cordon" is the most beguiling. Mr. Sullivan, however, seems to us almost more a romancer on earth

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than in faery or ghost-land—witness the charming "Rock of Béranger"; and who but a poet would write of "Vaulting Crickets"?

'A Little Worldling' is an unnecessary novel, wherein the wickedness of Presbyterians is brought to confusion by the loving-kindness of heretics, through ways which are ways of unpleasantness from the literary and from every point of view.

'A Foreign Match' is another disappointing book. Its opening pages are full of the promise of an entertaining story, and in the main it is ably written. The *dramatis personæ* and the properties are, to be sure, hackneyed. A young Parisian painter, a crippled sister, a stanch friend in workman's dress, a family of rich Americans living in gilded exuberance—these are types outworn, yet they enter upon the stage with a spring that gives hope of something agreeable. It is therefore depressing to find one's self, in the last chapter, assisting at a Camille-like scene of a dying runaway wife restored to her husband's affections, and to the flowers and silver salvers of accepted repentance.

Miss Aldrich's book is in places clever and throughout supremely disagreeable. It is easily seen that her aim has been to outdo the insanities of certain modern novels, in a saner language than theirs. We commend to her the words of an English reviewer who speaks of a recent work as one "which will be a delight to those who in literature are alone worth delighting—the cultivated students of all that is sweet and high and noble in literary art."

'The Salt-Master of Lüneburg' is a thoroughly good book of its kind. Its kind is somewhat long-winded and given to horseplay, but it is full of life and color and movement, and, moreover, deals with an interesting episode in the history of the fifteenth century—a struggle for power in which the contestants are burghers and guilds, prelates and lords. The fine, sturdy character of the Salt Master, whose personal integrity wins for him the confidence of high and low, and enables him to lead his beloved city out of harm's way into peace, is admirably presented; nor is there a single figure in the crowded canvas which is not clear and individual. The story does not flag, long as it is. The descriptions of life in a German city are particularly readable, and the prominence in all public and private affairs of the system of masters and guilds is set before us as vividly as if we were witnessing another "Meistersinger."

Those whose curiosity has been set tingling of late by mysterious rumors from the Lick Observatory of discoveries in Mars, too startling to be made known until time shall have sufficed for further verification, will find pastime of a suggestive sort in reading 'Uranie.' It may be called an astronomic rhapsody—a fantasia upon the interstellar spaces. Fascinating it is with the fascination of the mathematically true. M. Flammarion's most imaginative conjectures as to life in the stars are no more startling than the well-known facts he rehearses of the physical world. His incandescent beings who can glow at will are not stranger than the sixty different motions of the moon; nor do twelve senses in a planetary being appear more wonderful than a velocity of 320,000 yards a second in a star. It is as a résumé of facts and figures that 'Uranie' will be found readable, rather than as a work of imagination. Its occasional flippancies and irrelevancies are outweighed by a lofty spirit of research, nor do the feebleness and formlessness of the story which serves as vehicle, avail to quench in the reader a sense of having enjoyed a journey full of meaning and suggestion through the heavens.

'The Princess of Montserrat' is a jaunty little tale of desert-island adventure, in which the conquering hero is a New York newspaper reporter. His experiences are interesting and bloodless, and the airy sang-froid supposed to be characteristic of his calling, serves him many a good turn in his checkered career, while lending also to the narrative a happy-go-lucky strain.

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*Gray and His Friends:* Letters and Relics, in great part unpublished. Edited by Duncan C. Tovey, M.A. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1890.

THIS volume of nearly three hundred pages, coming upon the heels of Mr. Gosse's edition of Gray, illustrates the hopelessness of finality in editing. Mr. Tovey, a close student of Gray, is willing that other lovers of the poet should not be confined to what editors have chosen for publication. The new material of Gray consists of eight letters, in two of which Walpole collaborates, notes of travel in France, Italy, and Scotland (54 pages), brief notes to Percy and Brockett from the Percy MSS., thoughts, verse fragments, collectanea and conjectures, among which some of Warburton's Shakspere emendations are to be noted, and Latin poems from either Mitford's MSS. or the Pembroke College MSS. In addition, of matter not Gray's, but now first printed, there are one letter of Walpole, thirteen letters of Ashton, six of West, two of Miss Speed; and the list is completed by three letters of Gray to John Chute, hitherto published only in Mr. Chaloner Chute's 'History of the Vyne.'

The collection is not so piecemeal as this particular account of its contents might indicate. The first half is occupied with the correspondence of the four friends, known at Eton as the "Quadruple Alliance," Gray, Walpole, West, and Ashton, during their college days and the foreign tour of Gray and Walpole to the time of West's untimely death in 1742, at the age of twenty-six. The object is really to set forth West's character and make a memorial of him. The material is drawn from Mitford's MS. copies of the letters, and so much is added from previously published letters of West as will serve to make the correspondence continuous. West was highly valued by Gray, who meant to have collected his poems, but never did that pious labor. Mitford also seems to have intended to edit his remains. Mr. Tovey has now accomplished this long deferred work, and, though the story is brief and slight, it has a literary as well as a pathetic interest, and will be valued by those who care for Gray's circle of friends.

Of West's life no more is told than we knew before—that he was the son of Richard West, Chancellor of Ireland, and grandson of Bishop Burnet, attended Eton and Oxford, studied law without interest, and fell into a consumption and died, after having the close of his life embittered by the knowledge that his mother, whom he loved, had been intrigued with by his father's secretary. Whether we must add to this that he was aware that his father's death was due to poison given by this mother is not certain; but such a story is published by Mr. Gosse as coming through Dyce from Mitford. His letters, however, betray none of this tragic interest, except by the melancholy of their tone. They are made up of such pieces of college news, wishes for reunion, expressions of common literary interests, and other personal matters as one student at Oxford might send to his Eton friends at Cambridge, and they return the same in their answers. After college life was over there was little difference in the tenor, though the matter varies with the changed situation. The strain of personal affection is greater in West's letters to Gray, as his need was greater and his nature more tender; there is much restraint, however, in expression, and one finds in all a certain refinement of personal behavior, a high breeding, which is very charming in effect. We speak particularly of West and Gray; Ashton was of coarser grain, and in Walpole one is more sensible of the man of the world's habit, or suspects its presence.

But whether or not these few literary exercises should detain us on their own account or for their relation to Gray, they serve to make West more substantial, to prove how much he had loved Milton and the more gentle Latin poets, to show a young poet's nourishing in that age as he followed his will among the classics, and the true and carefully wrought, if slight, performance of his learning hand; but it is rather as a side-light that they are welcome, for in his letters the nature of the man is more intimately and excellently shown, such as to win kind memory for him and not the least place among poets' friends. The balance of affection, one thinks, was more on his side than on Gray's, and the two saw little of each other after their boyish friendship at Eton.

The new material of Gray which is collected in the latter half of the volume will be valued according to the attachment of the reader to the poet. We ourselves have found much of curious interest, and are thankful for this gathering of the fragments that nothing be wasted. The journal of the journey from Rome to Naples, in particular, we should be sorry to have lost. Most of the matter, however, is for the close student of Gray, and need not be remarked upon in detail. The editor corrects some errors in Mr. Gosse's work, and restores some texts wrongly given by Mason. His annotations are many, and seem thorough, though he apologizes for not being more thorough. His estimate of Gray's character is unusually good, by virtue of its freshness, simplicity, and naturalness. He particularly turns his face from the infelicitous conjectures of Matthew Arnold, whose essay showed an activity of imagination remarkable in the poet-critic. We are reminded, with regard to the text upon which Arnold built, that it is not to be believed that "when good Mr. Brown said of Gray that 'he never spoke out,' he had anything in his mind but the fact that Gray did not acknowledge to his friends how near he felt his end to be"; and Mr. Tovey goes on to bring our minds back to the obvious meaning of words, to the fact that his melancholy was a kind of "leucocholy," that in "incidental treatment of public events he had about as much 'high seriousness' as George Selwyn," that his description of Pitt's eulogy on Wolfe (a cruel instance) is in "the Walpolian not the Wordsworthian spirit," whence "to attribute *Weltschmerz* to him, or even any latent uneasiness pointing that way, is the merest anachronism." He thinks that if Gray had been "born in the same year with Milton," he would have been a "less finished artist," but much the same man; and if "with Burns," then he would have written "less great poetry" and "perhaps more satirical verses and more prose."

In the way of literature, West sends his verses, Latin and English translation, and original, to Gray; and these, though not such as to foretell a real poet, show many good qualities

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of style framed under Latin influences, and, though they have much of false taste derived from the age, exhibit talent and real taste, an occasional directness that might have become vigor, and sincerity of feeling. They are more interesting because they approach Gray, now a rather solitary figure, in their literary characteristics. They mirror, in a way, his early intellectual mood and immaturity. It may be fanciful if one seems to see here the classical influence leaving satire for ode in the development of English literature, the beginning of more personal feeling and a delight in nature, which were faint prophecies of a change in poetic style; but it would be natural to find such signs in Gray's environment. It may, perhaps, not be superfluous to refer, for the curiosity of the matter, to the lines on the "Death of Queen Caroline," which Gray worked over into a famous stanza of the 'Elegy':

"Ah me! what boots us all our boasted power,
Our golden treasure and our purpled state?
They cannot ward th' inevitable hour,
Nor stay the fearful violence of Fate."

It is interesting to note, too, that a month before he died, West sent to Gray an Ode to Spring which was possibly the suggestion to him of his own ode, enclosed to West in a letter written just before learning of his sudden death.

The temper of Mr. Tovey's strictures upon the idealized figure of Arnold's inner consciousness is perfectly modest, and the remarks seem to us unusually sensible, and wholly untouched by that literary mood which impairs and often thoroughly vitiates judgments by literary men, of which Arnold's 'Gray' is a conspicuous example. In this little introduction we get back to the region of plain common-sense, though the criticism is made in so off-hand and unobtrusive a way that the reader hardly knows it is there until he sees how sound it is. The entire volume is a welcome addition to the literature about Gray, which, as Mr. Tovey reminds us, is not to be found in Mr. Gosse or any one book; and for our part we hope for further additions to what is always so delightful.

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*Civil Government in the United States.* Considered with some Reference to its Origins. By John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

THIS little book, though meant to be serviceable and suggestive to the general reader, is primarily designed for the instruction of children in schools, after they have reached that stage of mental development in which it is no longer enough that they should be pleased with the rattle of "drum and trumpet histories," or tickled with the straw of story-books and fairy tales. The scholastic use of the book is emphasized (perhaps a little too obtrusively for the mature reader and the intelligent teacher), by an apparatus of "Questions on the Text," appended to each chapter, and also by supplementary "Questions and Directions," designed to facilitate original inquiry on the part of the pupil, after the methods, on a small scale, of the German *Seminar*. For this latter branch of work an ample bibliography is furnished, that the student may betake himself to good sources of knowledge in solving the historical problems here set before him to quicken curiosity and promote intellectual acumen.

In pursuit of his design to exhibit the genetic ideas which lie at the bottom of civil government in the United States, Mr. Fiske has undertaken to select and put together, "bit by bit," as he says, the archaic institutes and social usages which, after passing for long ages through the grooves of change, have resulted at last in that "magnificent piece of constructive work," the Constitution of the United States. That is, he undertakes to show how far our American theory of self-government is an historical evolution, and how far it is an original creation. Such an inquiry into the comparative anatomy and morphology of political structures is a work of much difficulty, but, as the author justly remarks, "our country affords an admirable field for the study of the general principles which lie at the foundation of universal history"; and this for the obvious reason that we live under a government which, in the complexity of its organism, is the most specialized of any on the globe. To explain the genesis of this specialization the student must learn how to trace its descent from that oldest of political cells, the clan of our savage ancestors. For such a cosmical philosophy in politics it does not need to be said that Mr. Fiske is singularly well equipped. On its critical side, as a scientific exposition of the origins of our Government, the work is every way admirable. Indeed, the writer has allowed the modesty of its title to obscure not only the most distinctive feature, but also the most characteristic merit of the book. It purports to be a treatise on civil government in the United States, "considered with *some* reference to its origins." In point of fact, Mr. Fiske avows at the close of his volume that it has been his "*main* purpose" to treat of civil government in the United States with reference to these origins. It was inevitable that he should have spent his strength on this part of his work, rather than on its descriptive analyses of our governmental forms.

The usefulness of such an inquiry needs no enforcement. The comparative method in modern research has been likened by Freeman to a second Revival of Learning, because of the transformation it has wrought in human thought on all subjects. All the so-called Universal Histories written before it are emptied to-day of scientific value for the want of it. If we would know the origins of English jurisprudence, we must look for them in the science of comparative law. So simple an institute as Borough English can be better understood in the pages of Sir Henry Maine and Scrutton than in the pages of Blackstone. In like manner, if we would know the origins of American self-government, we must hunt for them in the cradles of the British race.

It takes a great deal of learning to make these recondite things simple and plain to the youthful reader, and Mr. Fiske has made them simple and plain. That he has pursued the right method in beginning at the bottom of our political evolution and then tracing the gradual progress upwards, instead of reasoning backwards from the top to the bottom, there can be no doubt. In this way the continuity of the historical process is set before the reader in an order which is logical because it is chronological. And if the logic of the book is severe, as becomes a scientific treatise, its style is always clear. Indeed, the style is often enlivened with glimpses caught from the realm of romance. It is evident that the writer wishes his pupils to know their Dickens and Charles Reade as well as their Seebohm and Laveleye. He expects them to take a hint about the wonderful country which Alice visited after she had gone through the looking-glass, as well as a hint about the rectangular cartography of our land office in laying out the townships of a Western State. At page 216 Mr. Fiske even presses the pencil of the painter into the service of his pen, and gives us a grotesque picture of the "Gerrymander," with the dragonly head, wings, and claws appended to that blatant beast by Stuart, the artist.

In the descriptive part of the work we note some slips of the pen—the evident marks of haste. It is a mistake to intimate (p. 230) that the electoral vote of New Jersey was divided between Lincoln and Douglas in 1860 as a result of "the district system." That divided result was determined by a "fusion" among the adherents respectively of Breckinridge, Bell, and Douglas. Their "fusion" electoral ticket comprised three friends of Douglas, two friends of Breckinridge, and two friends of Bell; and as a faction of the Douglas men supported a "straight-out" ticket besides, in which the three "fusion" electors were adopted, it chanced that these three had a majority over the Lincoln electors. It is also a mistake to say (p. 218) that "there is nothing to prevent a State from electing all its Representatives [in Congress] *in this way* [*by a general State ticket*], if it prefers to do so; and it has lately been done in Maine." If Mr. Fiske will turn to the United States Statutes-at-Large, vol. xxii., p. 6, he will find that the election of Representatives "in this way" is *not* left to the discretion of the States, and that the election in Maine to which he refers was provided for by a special statute of Congress. Under the census of 1880 the Congressional representation of Maine was reduced from five to four. This reapportionment broke up her then existing districts, and, as Congress foresaw that new districts might not be made in time for the next ensuing Congressional election, it was provided that that next election could be conducted by general ticket.

We do not know what Mr. Fiske means by saying (p. 244) that "Congress may establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies, *but it has not done so.*" The italics are ours, because we are puzzled to understand what lack of "uniformity" there is in our existing naturalization laws, or what lack of "uniformity" there was in the bankrupt acts of 1800, of 1842, and of 1867. These bankrupt acts, we know, were repealed for supposed abuses under them, but not, so far as we know, for any lack of uniformity in their tenor or application.

Slight inaccuracies of statement should be corrected, as when, in referring to the broad avenues which break up the "checker-board monotony" of rectangular streets in the city of Washington, Mr. Fiske says (p. 84), that these avenues "radiate like spokes of a wheel from the Capitol as a centre." Some of them start at the distance of a mile or more from the Capitol.

We find it hard to agree with Mr. Fiske in the opinion that "the practical questions" which have divided the two great parties concerned with the powers of the national Government before the civil war, may be reduced to these three: the *Tariff*, *Internal Improvements*, and a *National Bank*. Slavery can hardly be ignored in any analysis of the "practical questions" which divided parties in the United States before the civil war. In a work like this there was no room, of course, for the slavery polemic; but it seems to us that Mr. Fiske might have properly found a place for the scientific study of slavery, considered as a social institute which has profoundly colored the stream of American history. It would have been as easy to show that slavery was an archaic institute in our social system as to show that "the township was originally a stationary clan, and a county was originally a stationary tribe." In like manner, it would have been easy to show that this archaic institute, because of its alien nature and intrusive

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growth in our political organism, was doomed to destruction from the moment it came to be infiltrated in our civil polity; for slavery in civilized nations has always been, to use the phrase of Lieber, "a deciduous institution." In such nations it has always come to an end, either by slow decay or by sudden shock.

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*The Golden Bough.* A Study in Comparative Religion. By J. G. Frazer, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Macmillan & Co. 1890. 8vo, 2 vols., pp. xii.-409 and 407.

THE priest of Diana at Nemi (lately made famous by a drama of Renan) obtained his office by fulfilling two conditions: he had to slay his predecessor, and, that he might have the right to slay him, had to pluck a bough from a certain tree in the sanctuary. Mr. Frazer's book is an attempt to discover the origin of this custom, and his account of it is as follows: The priest, who was also styled "King of the Wood," was an incarnation of the sylvan deity there worshipped, whose life was in the bough, and he had to be killed in order that the divine spirit incarnate in him might be transferred in undiminished vigor to his successor. This conclusion he supports by a large array of facts drawn from European, Asiatic, African, and American peasant and savage folk-customs. In successive chapters he treats of the incarnation of deities in men and in trees, of the royal and priestly tabus by which the soul of the divine man is guarded, of the killing of the god that the people may be saved from the evils attending his senile decrepitude, and of the external soul which may be detached from its owner and dwell in bird or beast or plant, and so be captured and destroyed.

Whether or not he has solved the mystery of the strange custom of Nemi, he has collected a vast amount of curious information respecting ancient and modern religious ideas and usages, and has made probable, if not demonstrated, the persistence, in many popular customs, of primitive savage conceptions of the supernatural. He is doubtless right in assuming that much mythical material is to be regarded as invented explanation of ritual, and that it is to this latter that we must go for the simplest religious ideas of early man. The study of ritual thus becomes of first importance in the reconstruction of primitive religions—a study beset with difficulties, but certain to yield rich results.

The most striking part of Mr. Frazer's book is the chapter on the slain god, an idea the credit of which he gives to Prof. W. Robertson Smith, whose recent work, 'The Religion of the Semites,' has opened a new path for the investigation of the origins of religion. Mr. Frazer has, however, illustrated the idea with abundant learning and ingenuity. He comes, for example, with a new spirit to the examination of the great slain gods of Semitic, Egyptian, Phrygian, and Greek mythology. Adonis, Attis, Osiris, Dionysus, Lityerses, and also Demeter and Proserpine, he explains as deities of vegetation, similar to the corn-spirits of modern Europe; the death and resurrection of the god are held to signify the annual death and revival of vegetation. This view is, to say the least, as satisfactory as the solar hypothesis as a partial explanation of these mythical histories. Elaborate myths are probably never simple in origin; they usually bear evidence of the convergence of different lines of thought. Recognizing this fact, Mr. Frazer is disposed to claim only partial accuracy for his explanations.

The importance of modern folk-lore for the elucidation of ancient customs is becoming better understood every day. Through books of travel, publications of folk-lore societies, and such systematic investigations as those of Mannhardt, the material is rapidly growing, and larger results for ancient mythology may be expected. Mr. Frazer has in this volume made no slight contribution to the science of religion; and from the work on primitive superstition and religion which, as he states in his preface, he is now preparing, we may hope for something of great interest.

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*Essays of an Americanist.* By Daniel G. Brinton. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1890. 8vo, pp. 489.

THIS is the most recent among the bulkier publications of the author, whose productivity in regard to Americanist studies seems to increase with his years. It is a collection of twenty-four articles, with introductions and indexes, all being classed, on the title-page as well as in the book itself, in four divisions: (1) Ethnologic and Archæologic, (2) Mythology and Folklore, (3) Graphic Systems and Literature, (4) Linguistic. The book does not profess to be wholly original; most of the articles have appeared before, being either verbatim reprints or new recastings. Some are of value and worth preserving, while as to the value of others the opinions of Americanists differ largely, as the latest reviews of the book demonstrate. The articles of value are mainly those in which the argument is founded on historic facts, while in the papers of the lighter sort Brinton's lively imagination prevails over his reasoning power, and sometimes, when it suits him, runs directly counter to historic truth. It must indeed be a formidable task for a single scientist to produce something serious and thorough in so many fields of Indian science simultaneously.

To begin with his article on the Toltecs (pp. 83-100), the author is certainly right in declaring their so-called *empire*, which is alleged to have extended across Anahuac from the western to the eastern ocean, a baseless fable, if empire is meant in the sense of a centralized monarchy. One of the numerous places called Tula or Tullan lay on Serpent Hill, and was an antique religious centre of the Mexicans, like Nani Waya, "the sloping hill," among the Choctaws; from it the fabled empire took its name. What was originally meant by Toltec empire is, according to Brinton, the whole extent of the Nahuatl nation, which had extended all over southern Mexico; but other scholars prefer to see in the Toltecs the ancient dominion of the Maya people. That Tollan must be identified with *tonatlan*, 'sun's place,' as the birthplace of Quetzalcoatl, is an assertion which requires more proof to be credible.

Another paper, on "The Earliest Form of Human Speech as Revealed by American Tongues," contains statements which we should expect to find rather in the writings of Rudolf Falb than in those of Brinton. From examples occurring in Howse's Cree Grammar, he thinks it is possible that in early epochs one term may have signified a certain thing and also its exact opposite (like the Cree *eth*, 'being' and 'not-being'), and claims to have found instances to sustain this in Tinné and Nahuatl. This is exactly the theory of Carl Abel, over which many linguists are dubiously shaking their heads. On page 408 we find a description of what the language or speech of the palæolithic man *must once have been*, and a discussion of the problem whether early men modelled their sounds rather from what they saw or from what they heard. Were they *visuaires* or *auditaires?* Brinton is more inclined to make them "visuaires," but we think the question is not well put.

The treatise on "The Conception of Love" is based too largely on imagination and speculative etymology to be of real value to linguists or psychologists. But now comes a rehearsal of the Taensa controversy, which the author brings forward simply to injure Lucien Adam, the scholar chiefly implicated in the affair. As Brinton had lately made peace with him, it is evidence of Punic faith to touch the subject again, and to repeat the same historic falsities as he advanced previously. How little Dr. Brinton is capable of judging about languages and their affinities may appear from the fact that in 1867 he declared the Natchez tongue cognate with Maya, and in 1873 with Maskoki (Choctaw, Creek, Seminole, etc.), but with no open retractation of the former statement. More lately, having asserted that Chorotega, a Chiapanec dialect of Nicaragua, was cognate with Aimará, he made due retractation.

Dr. Brinton's activity has proved very useful in raising new Americanistic problems or presenting the old in a novel light, whatever the real value of his own articles, theories, and publications may be. To become still more useful to science, he should without delay conscientiously edit the Maya dictionary of Motul, composed about 1590. Dr. C. H. Berendt's copy, with his own invaluable annotations, containing parallels from the modern Maya dialects, is in Brinton's hands, and the present state of Maya researches urgently demands the publication of this unique document upon the language.

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*Sporting Sketches.* By Diane Chasseresse. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

IT is related of a certain English prelate that, when reading the third chapter of Daniel, he was wont to omit all the catalogues of musical instruments after the first, and to substitute the words "music as before." This was in the nature of a protest against unnecessary repetition, and the reader of 'Sporting Sketches' will be apt to wish that the lady with the Franco-mythological pen-name, whose wondrous deeds are herein recorded, had taken a hint from the worthy bishop. The desire to slaughter wild animals, which becomes a passion with many men and occasional women, is doubtless inherited from a remote and savage ancestry, and is a survival of a period when meat could not be obtained from a butcher round the corner, and when straight shooting with the weapon peculiar to the age was consequently a talent worthy of careful cultivation. But in these later days, deer-stalking and the pursuit of game generally can only be regarded as means of obtaining healthful and invigorating exercise, while "pot-hunting" for the benefit of the larder, which seems to have been the regular occupation of this modern Diana, cannot be described in book form without boring and wearying the reader. The wounding or killing of one stag is very like that of another, and the monotony of 'Sporting Sketches' is only relieved by the phenomenal character of some of the shots described—any scepticism in regard to which is met by the author's solemn declaration that "every word in the book is true." Moreover, she shows an entire lack of appreciation of the beauties of nature—a defect which is fortunately uncommon among genuine sportsmen, and is probably the distinguishing note of the pot-hunter.

In one respect only is the book remarkable—

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in this age of wonderful wood-engraving—and that is in the grotesque badness of the illustrations. The author must be strangely free from vanity to have allowed a cold and possibly critical public to judge of her personal appearance from the illustration at page 158. In this extraordinary picture she is made to look like one of the recently discovered mummies dressed in an early Egyptian mackintosh, while on other pages her appearance, although quite different, can hardly be called attractive. She gives an account of her experience with a semi-tame otter, which is evidently intended to be humorous, but is simply disgusting, and she naïvely relates how a pet rabbit once ate up one of her pictures—and recovered!—thereby showing that it possessed a combination of the critical faculty with strong digestive powers that would have filled the soul of Thomas Carlyle with envy. The book is dedicated to the author's children, and is said to have been written for their amusement. In this it may meet with success, but it should have been strictly preserved for home consumption.

*Following the Guidon.* By Elizabeth B. Custer. Illustrated. Harpers. 1890.

THE earlier books of her military life have established for Mrs. Custer a personal and sympathetic audience that will accept this as kindly as it did those. The frank simplicity that reports the rather boyish pranks of "our brother Tom," and cites with affection what "our father Custer" did, may continue to be trusted to give a careful and interesting account, only colored by personal feeling as it concerns individuals, of a life whose lines of control were entirely outside those which environ civilians.

The volume opens with the winter march to the Washita, and the surprise and slaughter of Black Kettle's warriors. Taken by necessity from Gen. Custer's official reports, the revival of that combat requires no comment now, but it excites regret that Major Elliott's fate, if noted at all, should be so curtly dismissed.

The book is chiefly taken up with the summer camp of the Seventh Cavalry in 1869, near Fort Hays, and the incidents which revolved around it. Buffalo and Indians were the heroic, the matters of canvas-housekeeping the minor elements. In not much more than ten years it is estimated that nine millions of buffalo were slain, and in less than twenty the plains over which they roamed have been so laced, one had almost said lacerated, with wire fences and iron tracks that the desert, if not blooming as the rose, has at least become an additional granary for the continent, and one that grows year by year. This transformation from the wilderness where troopers marched, savages raided, and the innumerable bison grazed is, if not a miracle, at least a constant wonder to those who knew both conditions. The next generation will accept it as a matter of course, but to those who, like the author, have seen its accomplishment within a short span of active years, it is like enchantment.

In her mention of the buffalo Mrs. Custer does scant justice to either the magnitude or the multitude of that great beast. Eight hundred pounds is a low estimate for the weight of the individual animal, and to the ordinary reader figures convey little idea of numbers. Where not constantly hunted, as along the line of the then advancing Pacific Railroad, in places the whole plane of vision would be brown as with the trunks of a forest. It would matter nothing that vast areas might have none, as long as one's particular horizon was thus filled. Besides these vast herds were smaller groups of from fifty to a thousand, so that within the belt, varying with the season and the year, these untamed cattle might easily be found in season. Mrs. Custer's description of the chase is good, and may be preserved as that of an eye-witness of what is already an extinct sport, although it may be questioned whether the actual equalled the apparent danger. There might have been added, as must have been known at least by report, some account of the occasionally methodical evolutions of the moving herds—so apparently systematic and so closely resembling intelligent manœuvres as to deceive distant observers as to the nature of the masses.

That the rattlesnake is edible was demonstrated in the fifties by an intelligent and inquisitive officer on the upper Missouri.

The preface to the little book is an interesting essay upon guidons and military "calls," and the various chapters have as headings the trumpet-notes that make up the record of the soldier's day. Mrs. Custer's style, while losing none of its attractive simplicity, has much improved by practice, and she has given here a pleasant record of a life of some hardship and many inconveniences, but one which possesses a manifest fascination for the civilized nomads of both sexes. This story of it is gilded throughout with an affection that ennobles the story-teller quite as much as the object of it.

*Aztec Land.* By Maturin M. Ballou. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

MR. BALLOU dwells delightedly in his preface on the luxurious ease with which one can "visit Mexico" in a Pullman car, in which "the traveller lives, eats, and sleeps." This furnishes the note for his entire volume: it is the most effortless writing imaginable, all the taking-pains being good-naturedly left to the reader. When the journey made by Mr. Ballou had painfully to be done on horseback, or even in the diligence, there was enough novelty in the obvious sights on the way to justify a tourist in making record of them; but, after it has been all told a hundred times, there is really no more reason for putting into a book what can be seen out of a car-window in travelling from the Rio Grande to Vera Cruz than if the route lay simply between Boston and Eagle Pass. To be sure, the author works in several pages of historical writing, but the knowledge displayed in them was evidently come at in a short and easy way. Mr. Ballou is aware that something is wrong with the Spanish chronicles, but is entirely wrong himself in thinking that they are to be incontinently bowled down in the radically sceptical manner of Wilson. Of the later and truly scientific study of Mexican archæology, he appears to know nothing. If he simply aimed to startle his readers by averring that Mexico "nearly equals France and Italy in historic interest," and by maintaining that our war with Mexico was undertaken to repel Mexican aggressions, he may be assured of success. The style of the book is to be commended, for the most part. Several proper names and Spanish words were too much for the proof-reader. The whole, justice compels us to say, has no excuse for being.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Autobiography of Anton Rubinstein. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Bigelow, M. M. The Law of Fraud. Vol. II. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Bolton, Sarah K. Famous European Artists. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Brown, H. F. The Venetian Printing Press: An Historical Study. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $10.
Butler, Sir W. F. Sir Charles Napier. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Champlin, J. D. Cyclopedia of Music and Musicians. Vol. III. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Claflin, Mary B. Brampton Sketches. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Claflin, Mary B. Real Happenings. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 30 cents.
Cooley, T. M. Constitutional Limitations. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Curzon, L. H. The Blue Ribbon of the Turf. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Co. $1.75.
Dole, N. H. Count Tolstoi's Gospel Stories. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Duffy, Lieut. E. History of the 159th Regiment, N. Y. S. V. New York: Francis P. Harper.


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